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In This Issue

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PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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Editorially speaking . . .

• Newspaper editorialists, sensitive to the groundswells of public opinion, are more and more chanting the slogan, "Down with Government Costs!" And since government payrolls represent a very large part of these costs, the effectiveness of public employees on the job is a concern that personnel men share closely with line management. In his article, *Efficiency and the Cost of Government,* Albert H. Aronson underscores the importance of an aggressive personnel program in any constructive approach to the reduction of government costs.

• Conventional methods for recruiting, testing, and certifying typists and stenographers are slow and tedious at best. In California, the examining staff of the State Personnel Board set out to speed up the process from beginning to end. With the help of an ingenious stenographic dictation test and the cooperation of the state employment service, the staff has achieved remarkable success. How it was done is told in the article, *A New Method of Examining and Certifying Typists and Stenographers,* by L. W. Chopson and Pauline Cawley.

• Setting up an effective employee training program calls for a proper sharing of responsibility between the personnel agency and the line departments. Sometimes the program

gets off on the wrong foot when the personnel office trys to do the whole job itself. Charles Weber draws on his experience in directing a training program in the Michigan State service to point out some pitfalls to be avoided in his article, *The Role of the Personnel Agency in In-service Training.*

• The far-flung program of scientific and technical research sponsored by the Navy has created a personnel problem of considerable proportions. It has required new approaches in the classification, recruiting, and testing of physicists, mathematicians, electronics engineers, and a host of other scientific specialists. James Nielson outlines the program that has been developed for coping with these problems in his article, *Examining for Scientific Personnel.*

• Must an employee handbook always be pocket-size? Can greater employee cooperation be gained by shunning the typical "thou-shalt-not" tone in phrasing regulations? William Brody answers these and other questions in his stimulating article, *You and a Handbook for Your Employees.* If you are considering publishing a handbook, you will find his article contains a wealth of practical suggestions; if you already have a handbook, see how it measures up to the author's standards.

• "Examinations can be fun," says Jane Petersen in her article, *An Illinois Group Activity Test.* She goes on to describe an unique experiment in group testing for recreation workers, based on the premise that their ability at playing games was a prime requirement for success on the job. The method used has potential application in other occupational fields where working with groups of people calls for particular personality characteristics.

Efficiency and the Cost of Government . . . ALBERT H. ARONSON

TODAY there is widespread general public and legislative concern about the increasing costs of government from local to national. Even if this were not so, those in the field of public administration have an obligation continually to review developments and take measures to assure maximum efficiency in the conduct of the public business.

It should be noted at the outset—and I think that even hostile critics of governmental trends will agree to this—that the increase in government costs is due to our part in two world wars and to the expansion of governmental functions rather than to changes in the level of efficiency. Whether this expansion is wise or not is a matter of public policy beyond the scope of our discussion here. The expansion is attributable to our new role in world affairs, the necessity for adequate military security, and the assumption by government of responsibility in the fields of agriculture, social welfare and insurance, public health, education, employment and unemployment, and for certain regulatory functions in the economic field. It is a phenomenon of many decades that shows no signs of abating. Inevitably, it means that inefficiency in government is a much more serious problem than ever before and that dividends in increased efficiency are greater.

The size of the public payroll is staggering; its distribution is often misunderstood. Excluding the armed forces, it contains over 6 million persons. Of these, some 2 million are in the federal service, the largest organizations being the civilian staff of the National Military Establishment, the Post Office Department, and the Veterans' Administration. These three agencies account for over 1,600,000, roughly 75 percent of the total. All remaining federal agencies, from archives to zoology, total under 500,000. There are nearly one million state employees, of whom approximately 300,000 are school employees and 700,000 nonschool employees. There are over three million local employees, about 1,300,000 of whom are school employees and 1,700,000 nonschool employees.

Formalization and Flexibility

THE GROWTH of government has necessarily led to the formalization of administration. This is as true in personnel administration as in other phases of public management. In general, large organizations, public or private, tend to develop formal policies and intricate procedures. The hoariness of the term "red tape" indicates that this is no new development. Procedures in government, however, tend to have an additional element of formality not related to size because they are based upon statute and the necessity for answerability to the public for each action. Public administration is also complicated by the fact that it must be subject to public scrutiny in the general interest.

There is no magic formula by which such difficulties can be solved. A balance must be struck to maintain administration by law in accordance with the highest concepts of objective administration without sacrificing flexibility. Where the

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rights of the public are involved, there must be an assurance of equal treatment before the law, without the development of tremendously detailed, ultra-refined, and legalistic procedures which hamper simple and effective administration. Obviously, this is more easily said than done.

Procedures are important from the managerial standpoint, but they are also important because the impact of government operations on the public is partly in terms of procedures. They must not become an end in themselves but be used to attain such major objectives as efficiency in the selection and utilization of staff and democracy in assuring qualified citizens the right to be considered for public employment on the basis of their abilities alone.

Service and Simplification

WE HEAR many references nowadays to the service aspects of personnel administration. Some of these imply that this is service to the heads of operating departments. The service concept, so expressed, disregards the fact that, unlike private business, a government agency is not owned by its management but by the citizenry. Obviously, the ultimate service is to the public. If its service is in the public interest, personnel administration will not conflict with but will help achieve the objectives of the operating programs and hence serve the department heads directing these programs. The conception of public administration in terms of a private preserve for each administrator tends to promote separatism, which may be wasteful. At the same time, excessive centralization also hampers efficient administration. In the personnel field, promoting separatism among departments is costly from the viewpoint of administrative efficiency when it fails to utilize the maximum contribution of the central personnel agency. On the other hand, that contribution must be based upon a recognition of the importance of speed and simplicity in operations. The central agency should decentralize functionally and geographically whenever it is more economical and efficient to do so.

Decentralizing certain types of routine personnel transactions and record keeping certainly is desirable, especially as an organization grows in size. Specific measures of simplification and economies may be effected without abandonment of the concept of a public service. It has been indicated that the values of decentralization are related to factors such as size and geographical distance. What may be desirable in a jurisdiction having many agencies, each with from tens to hundreds of thousands of employees, may be wasteful in one where the number of employees in each agency does not exceed a few thousand.

Flexibility in administration is desirable, but it should be flexibility in applying general procedures to specific situations. It should not be a failure to use the best instruments and then attempt to correct the conditions by making exceptions to principles.

Costs, Competence, and Competition

SINCE PAYROLLS are by far the largest part of the costs of public agencies, cutting such costs deserves consideration by personnel workers as well as by over-all administrators and management engineers. Certain aspects of the control of costs are beyond the scope of personnel administration. The type of organization, the size of the staff, the necessity for a given function within an organization, the procedures in fields other than personnel, as well as the larger question of the scope of services the organization undertakes to perform, are not personnel questions. But within the area of personnel administration, there are major questions affecting the total costs of government. We cannot and should not dodge responsibility for the selection of public employees and for their utilization, productivity, and morale.

A few words should be said on the relationship of costs to competence and of competence to competition. There is, of course, no absolute standard of compe-

tence for any job. A selection process is working well if it gets a fair share of superior talent within any given occupation, and superior talent must, practically, be defined in terms of the best available talent at any given time.

It will be conceded that a career service reduces turnover and that turnover is costly, but whether such career service reduces public costs depends more upon the competence of those entering the service than upon low turnover. Turnover is not per se undesirable. It is a question of whether the replacement is inferior, of equal caliber, or superior. While the costs of induction and training on the job are considerable, such training must be amortized over the period of time the employee serves. Turnover, prohibitively costly, on a job of short duration, might be advisable if it meant a better caliber of persons for a career in the public service.

Costs of selection are another important consideration. Is it worth while to spend $100 to select an employee whose salary is $2,000? If there is a ten per cent differential in the efficiency of the employee selected, it will be more than offset in one year. If he remains on the job as a career employee, if he supervises others and affects their efficiency, it can easily be seen that the ultimate cost of poor or mediocre selection will far exceed the cost of an improved selective process. The cost of selection, then, cannot be viewed in absolute terms, but in terms of whether the method used results in improved selection. There is no personnel agency in the country for which increased expenditures could not be justified if they resulted in the actual improvement of the quality of public employees. More effective recruitment and selection through improved methods constitutes one answer to the problem of efficiency, rather than abandonment of the attempt by returning in greater measure to subjective judgments and other outmoded methods made under the guise of flexibility.

Criteria of Effectiveness of Merit Systems

How EFFECTIVE are our merit systems today? There is no simple answer or single index. However, in the primary function of recruiting and selecting, there are at least two indices of value. The ratio of status employees to provisional employees furnishes the best index of the currency of the program. Quality is another matter. If a civil service agency is reasonably current, the best single index as to whether it is performing a worth-while service is the ratio between the number of probationary appointments in the service originally made from eligible lists and the number of such appointments which are mere conversions to probationary status of employees provisionally recruited. On the one hand, if a large proportion of provisional appointees are not qualified, the total system is costly and the failure originally to provide qualified eligibles results in expensive turnover and training. On the other hand, if most provisional employees recruited outside the merit system are given permanent status through the competitive examination, it indicates that the merit system is unnecessary. It is then merely performing a ritual to give permanent tenure rather than a positive service in recruitment and selection.

Facing facts, we must recognize that many merit systems, because of inability to keep current on examination loads, are permitting provisional employees to be appointed and then giving examinations by which they qualify or are disqualified. Not only is this costly in turnover and training costs, but it discourages competition and the selection of the best available persons. Even if such persons compete for jobs which are regarded as filled, naturally every administrator is inclined to keep satisfactory provisional employees, even if far superior persons become available when the register is established.

Hence, one of the major elements that prevents civil service agencies from achieving maximum efficiency is the time lag in examinations. Such examinations are not positive instruments of valid selection;

they are a negative device whose value is properly questioned. The time lag is caused both by the failure to anticipate needs by scheduling examinations and by an inordinately long period in establishing registers. The costliness of the latter is reflected in the loss of candidates interested at the time the examination is announced who are no longer available when the register is established. The better candidates are, of course, more likely to have a choice of opportunities outside the public service, so the proportionate loss in quality is even greater than the proportionate loss in numbers.

Implications for Administrative Action

It is, of course, easy for someone not directly responsible for the administration of examinations to point this out. Remedial action is not so easy. It lies in more adequate staffing of civil service agencies, and in a planned program of examinations early enough in each academic year to permit the offer of jobs to high school, college, and professional school graduates by commencement. It requires persuasive discussions of plans for examinations with operating agencies in terms of future needs, instead of after vacancies have been filled on a temporary basis. It means the optimum use of machine methods, standardized forms, and other management devices for streamlining. It means cutting down on record-keeping activities, and the use, where feasible, of devices such as sample checks instead of elaborate payroll certification procedures. It involves the utilization of available, validated test materials, instead of duplication of efforts and the dissipation of none too adequate resources. It calls for the active cooperation of personnel agencies in a variety of ways. Organizations like the Civil Service Assembly make such a contribution by passing along experience on problems new to a jurisdiction that minimize the trial and error process.

I shall not attempt here a general discussion of administrative management. However, the question should be posed as to whether we have, in actual fact, applied its principles to our own agencies. Have we set administrative goals that represent a reasonable adjustment of the factors of speed, economy, and quality of performance? Obviously, these are conditioned by the organizational setup, by legal factors relating to organization, and factors of budget and availability of qualified staff. In working with other agencies, personnel agencies observe deficiencies in organization, classification, and personnel utilization. Have we taken stock of our own division of work, channeling and leveling its flow, scheduling and dispatching work through various divisions, and applying methods improvement? To what extent do we have employee participation in methods improvement? Are we making maximum use of nonmonetary incentives? Is our physical layout efficient? Is the physical and psychological environment of our offices conducive to maximum production? Have we effective production control? Do we know the costs of the various parts of our operation? Do we have standards as to productivity, costs, and quality? Have we applied statistical methods of sampling to quality control?

Productivity, Supervision, and Morale

The relationship of morale to productivity is strikingly demonstrated in a recent study by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan, entitled "Productivity, Supervision, and Employee Morale."[1] An analysis was made in a large life insurance company of the productivity of parallel sections, six sections having identical functions in one instance and four in another. Supervisors and employees were interviewed to discover attitudes and practices correlated with production. The findings should be no surprise to personnel workers, but the study provides convincing evidence of a scientific character to buttress the need for sound personnel policies to be applied through the supervisory line. The findings were that the first-line supervisors in high-

[1] Human Relations Series, Report No. 1, 1948.

production groups differed from those in low-production groups in seven major respects. The supervisors of the high-production groups:

1. Are under less close supervision from their own supervisors.
2. Place less direct emphasis upon production as the goal.
3. Encourage employee participation in the making of decisions.
4. Are more employee-centered.
5. Spend more of their time in supervision and less in straight production work.
6. Have a greater feeling of confidence in their supervisory roles.
7. Feel that they know where they stand with the company.

Testing and Research

More and more, as the results of psychological investigation accumulate, we see that the factors in successful job performance boil down to a few main categories. I would list these as general mental ability, technical knowledges and skills, personal attributes that can be summed up as emotional stability, and character traits of loyalty and ethical standards. Only the second factor requires consideration of a specialized field of knowledge. Would it be possible for some jurisdiction to streamline its program by giving a standardized general mental test comparable to the Army General Classification Test to all applicants and use the ratings on such a test in all examinations for which the competitor might file in a given year? This might constitute the only written test for certain types of positions and be supplemented by tests of knowledge in specified areas, as well as by ratings of training and experience. The device might both reduce the test construction load and permit the use of general and special norms. Is it reasonable to require that appointees to clerical positions be not below the average intelligence of the general population? Is it reasonable to require the same minimum level of mental ability for public officials as has been required for Army officer candidates?

What possibilities lie in extending the practice of using certificates of stenographic and typing ability, such as that initiated in the state of California, to other skills? Have we fully explored and used the possibilities of cooperative examinations among jurisdictions, whether geographically overlapping or adjacent?

Research is, of course, essential to continued progress in any field. Such progress is related to costs, both in the improvement of method and in the achievement of economy in the public service through improved selection and promotion. Personnel research is immediately costly and generally not looked upon with favor by appropriating bodies. One must admit that, in a few instances, research is a sublimation for not doing an effective administrative job. To what extent is it feasible for public personnel agencies to tie in with university departments of psychology and public administration and get them to work on research projects of practical value?

Certainly, research is one field where exchange of information is essential to prevent duplication and frittering away of resources. Could not the Civil Service Assembly undertake to work out a plan for marking out areas for research among agencies willing and able to undertake it?

Ethics and Efficiency

One of the earmarks of a profession—in the sense of an occupation that covers a broad range of knowledge and has achieved certain standards of competence and of public service—is a code of ethics. None has been formulated by any organization in the public personnel field. I think that this is an undertaking for the Civil Service Assembly. It is related to the problems of costs because the code should recognize the obligation for the conservation of public funds and because the major objective of public personnel work is the more efficient administration of the public services.

I am not ready to offer such a code, but I suggest that among the elements to be considered are the following:

1. Recognition of the objective of efficient administration of the public service and an obligation for the conservation of public funds.

2. Wholehearted acceptance of the principle of open competition in the interests of democratic equality of opportunity and administrative efficiency.

3. Devotion to the principle of a career service built upon competence and kept trim in performance.

4. Utilization of scientific knowledge to achieve objectivity, reliability, and validity in methods.

5. Recognition of the importance of human relations and the dignity of the individual.

6. Tolerance and nonpartisanship in administration.

7. Loyalty, not merely in abstention from subversive activity, but in positive adherence to the ideals of our form of government.

8. Responsibility to keep abreast of developments in the field and to grow professionally.

If we face the problem of cutting governmental costs through increased efficiency, rather than through curtailment of services, we realize that it is not a simple problem. It cannot be solved by wielding an axe. It calls for imagination, administrative perspective and leadership, and technical competence. Personnel administration is a vital part of the total approach to the problem. The personnel field need not be apologetic about its present contribution, but this is not enough: it has the responsibility for progress.

New Method of Examining and Certifying Typists and Stenographers

E. W. CHOPSON · PAULINE B. CAWLEY

For years, the problem of recruiting, examining, certifying, and appointing junior and intermediate typists and stenographers has demanded much attention from merit system agencies. California's experiences in this regard have not been unique, but the great geographic expanse of the state with its accompanying transportation and communication complexities have made our situation acute. Each time the State Personnel Board announced a state-wide examination for these classes, thousands of applications were received, and several weeks were required to complete arrangements and to deliver test materials to the many cities and towns where examinations were given. Several thousand papers then required correction, and the complex task of setting up eligible registers for various localities began. The entire process from receiving an application to determining the top three eligibles available for a vacancy at a particular location required a minimum of sixty days. When the volume of other work was heavy, it might even require three to four months. After such a lapse of time, of course, eligibles were no longer interested in employment and much of the work and expense was wasted.

Development of the Program

Any adequate solution appeared to require that testing be nearly continuous, results obtained in a few days, and immediate appointment offered successful candidates. Because of its facilities, the California State Employment Service appeared to be an ideal agency to furnish such service, but truly continuous testing, unless carefully planned, seemed likely to violate the legal requirement that tests be competitive.

The written portion of the examination lent itself to the program without change, requiring only that control be maintained to prevent applicants repeating the same test form. Typing tests were not a problem either, since the Employment Service had been administering our typing tests on a continuous basis for more than a year. The State Personnel Board scored the papers and issued certificates of typing proficiency. Possession of such a certificate was required for admission to other parts of examinations.

The stenographic test, however, was a different matter. Spoken dictation cannot be repeated frequently, and in many localities, without the occurrence of occasional dictation errors which require special attention in scoring. Phonographs might have been provided to eliminate this, but the cost of machines and new sets of records every few weeks would be nearly prohibitive. Even if phonographs and records could be made available, few employment offices had private rooms where such tests would not interfere with other office operations or be overheard and at least partly memorized by future competitors. Scoring of stenographic tests by the usual method was also so laborious as to raise doubts as to whether the program could achieve the desired speed.

Some months were spent in developing and trying out new methods of testing for stenographic skill. The method finally adopted is to present the competitor with the dictation material in printed form and require that as much of it as possible be

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copied into shorthand or stenotype in a fixed period of time. After completion of other parts of the examination, the competitor is given a printed "transcription" of this material in which a variety of words and phrases are underlined and numbered. Some of these words or phrases are identical with those in the original material, while others have "errors" introduced by addition, omission, or changes in the original text. These errors are made plausible by careful attention to context so that they do not spoil the sense of the passage and by choosing words having shorthand symbols that bear at least reasonable similarity to those in the original material. The underlined, numbered phrases are then marked on an IBM answer sheet as true or false, depending upon whether they are exactly as dictated or whether they contain an error.[1]

Statistical analysis of the results of such stenographic tests administered experimentally to groups of stenographers already employed showed that when scored by the most favorable formula, correlations of scores on this test with scores on conventional stenographic tests approximated .75. Validity correlations were also calculated against various criterion scores. While the criteria themselves were not sufficiently reliable to serve the purpose adequately, obtained correlations indicated that the printed machine-scored tests were probably as valid as the conventional tests. In any case, the new technique has now been in use for nearly a year, and no complaints have been made by poorer eligibles.

Upon adoption of the new stenographic testing technique, the continuous examinations for junior and intermediate typists and stenographers became a reality.

Testing Procedure

AN APPLICANT calls at her local Employment Service office at any time and is either processed immediately or if that day's time is already filled, she is given an appointment to return at the first available time, usually within two or three days. Processing begins when a regular State Personnel Board application form and a control card are completed and reviewed by the employment service interviewer. If acceptable, the applicant is then tested. The typing test is administered first and quickly scored. If it is obvious that the applicant does not qualify in typing, she is so informed and no further testing done. If it appears that the applicant has passed the typing requirement, she is given the written examination including, if a stenographer, the stenographic test. The same written examination is used for both typists and stenographers.

In administering the stenographic test, five minutes are allowed for copying the printed material into shorthand and thirty minutes for "transcription," or the checking of the altered copy against shorthand notes and marking the answer sheet.

The application, control card, typing test, answer sheet, and stenographic notes are forwarded daily to the State Personnel Board by first-class mail. Upon receipt, the state-wide control file is checked, the application is rechecked, the typing test rescored and verified, and the written and stenographic tests scored by machine. Predetermined passing marks are used so that raw scores may be translated into percentages as soon as scoring is completed. Since the typing and stenographic tests are merely qualifying and do not influence final grades, only the written examination score must be so translated.

As soon as percentage grades are determined, veteran preference is checked and eligible registers are compiled. Registers are established on a strictly local basis. In other words, a test taken in one employment service office secures eligibility for appointment only in the geographic area served by that office. Separate registers are established for each day's test papers so

[1] *Editor's Note:* Copies of the stenographic test described in this article have been contributed to the Test Service of the Civil Service Assembly. They are available on a loan basis to agencies that are members of the Assembly through the Test Service facilities.

no interfiling or supplementing of registers is necessary.

State-wide tests have been discontinued for all classes covered by the continuous testing program. There has been no dissatisfaction on the part of applicants, since they are privileged to take the test once each calendar month. They may take it in any community where they wish to work in the office serving that community. Several candidates have availed themselves of this privilege, but due to housing shortages in the state there is very little movement of employees in these classes. Once an individual is employed, she may, of course, transfer to another state location if a vacancy exists, regardless of where the original examination was taken. It is believed that it is this very factor of local lists which has made the continuous program so effective, since the lists now contain names of persons actually seeking work in a particular locality. Formerly, a candidate might indicate at the time of the test that she was willing to accept work in any location. Practice proved, however, that this was not often the case, and lists were cluttered with names not actually available for appointment where they might be wanted or needed.

Registers are prepared in triplicate, copies being provided for the State Personnel Board certification division, the information counter, and the employment service office in which the papers originated. A triplicate form is also prepared for each eligible. The original becomes the notice of test results for the competitor, the duplicate and triplicate copies becoming Kardex panel cards for the State Personnel Board Certification Division and for the local Employment Service office. In addition to these forms, a certificate of proficiency in typing is prepared for each individual who earned a qualifying score in typing so that she may enter her certificate numbers on future applications in lieu of repeating the typing test. Notices to candidates not qualified are prepared in duplicate, one copy to the candidate and one to the Employment Service office which tested her.

All scoring, preparation, and mailing of registers and notices is completed within 48 hours after papers are received, so that the candidate and the local employment service office are informed of the results within five days after the test.

Control Requirements

Obviously, any plan which involves such complete decentralization both in procedure and location requires certain controls if security and integrity are to be maintained. Some of these considerations and the techniques applied to them follow:

1. Consistency in application review must be maintained. Post-audit by Personnel Board reviewers accomplishes this.

2. Repetition of the same test form by the same individual at frequent intervals must be prevented. This is done by using one test form at all locations throughout the state for one particular month. Before taking the test, each candidate fills out a signed control card which is forwarded with all pertinent papers to the Personnel Board. These cards are filed permanently and before newly qualified competitors are placed on eligible registers, their names are checked against this control file. If the competitor has previously taken that test form at any location, the second set of papers is voided, and the candidate must wait until the next month before being retested.

3. Security of examination keys and accuracy of scoring must be maintained. This is done by scoring all papers in the Personnel Board office; no keys are distributed to local test-giving offices. Changing test forms monthly also makes it more difficult to memorize the key.

Certification Procedure

In order to take full advantage of the accelerated examining program, it was necessary also to expedite the certification and appointment processes since they suffered from the same delays and complexities as had the examining procedure. Certi-

fication of these classes was therefore decentralized as completely as possible.

Under the new program, appointing agencies file "blanket" requests for certification with the State Personnel Board which approves or disapproves them. When a specific vacancy occurs, the agency files a job order with the Employment Service office serving the area where that vacancy exists. That Employment Service office maintains its own local eligible register from its copies of the notice of test results, and when a job order is received it refers the three top eligibles to the appointing agency for interview. The agency chooses the eligible it wishes to employ, returns the employment service referral card to the employment office with notation of its action, and submits appointment documents to the Personnel Board for post-audit.

Regional certification desks have been established in the three metropolitan areas of the state. These maintain the Personnel Board copies of the eligible registers for their areas, and appointment documents are submitted to those points rather than to the main office for approval. After approval, all documents are forwarded to the main office of the State Personnel Board for filing. Waivers of appointment, requests to be removed from the eligible registers, and other similar documents are cleared through both the local employment service office and the Personnel Board regional certifiers so that the eligible register in both offices is accurate and current. Thus the Employment Service can make immediate local referrals to fill nearly all vacancies and the appointing agency can put the eligible to work at once, with assurance that the appointment documents will be approved when audited by the Personnel Board.

Appointments must be in the order of their position on the eligible register, except for the choice permitted among the top three names. Certification, or referral, by the local Employment Service office from a strictly local register to the local offices of the appointing agency means that registers are short and there are comparatively few vacancies at any particular time. These factors plus effective post-audit have reduced the number of errors. When state-wide registers were used, mail or telegraphic certifications often caused confusion, delay, and failure of some messages to be received.

To prevent the establishment of excessively long registers in locations where vacancies are infrequent, eligible register quotas have been established for each location. Provision is also made for automatic cessation of testing when the quota is reached and for automatic resumption when half the register is exhausted.

Results and Conclusions

In practice, California's plan to test typists and stenographers has reduced the average time between the application date and the permanent appointment date from about 90 days to less than one week. Eligible registers now are made up almost entirely of individuals actively seeking appointment, rather than of individuals who have long since secured other positions and are no longer interested.

The program has reduced the percentage of temporary employees in these classifications almost to the vanishing point, except for certain positions which are actually temporary and for which permanent appointees are of no advantage.

In certain areas of the state, it has provided, for the first time in several years, eligible registers adequate to fill vacancies as they occur. This is becoming the case in more and more areas, and it is hoped fairly soon to have adequate registers in nearly all locations.

Availability of examining facilities in nearly every city and town in the state at almost any time a candidate applies has greatly reduced the travel and inconvenience required of the applicants and so has aided materially in recruiting in the present labor market.

Utilization of the facilities of the Employment Service in the civil service examining and placement process has re-

sulted in attracting to the employment offices a wider group of applicants, thereby broadening community appreciation of the Employment Service and improving its service to private industry. Simultaneously, the program has resulted in bringing to the attention of many applicants previously interested only in private employment the advantages of public service, thereby aiding our recruiting.

The speed with which the program serves the job-seeking applicants and the agencies in need of workers has done much to improve public relations and to dispel the all too common belief that civil service stood only for obstructionism and red tape. Similarly, several agencies report that lowered turnover and the employment of all tested eligibles instead of a large percentage of untried temporary employees is steadily increasing their operating efficiency.

Last but not least, in addition to rendering better service to the operating agencies of state government, the program has actually been an economy to our own agency. It has eliminated the work peaks formerly encountered in various units when a large periodic examination was processed and has reduced greatly the charges for examination rooms, and monitors, and for mimeographing, and shipping large numbers of examination booklets. It has also reduced considerably the cost of processing appointment documents since each permanent position which is filled by a temporary employee who must then be replaced requires the processing of two appointments rather than one. Similarly, the local referral features of this program almost entirely eliminate the expenses formerly encountered by departments in correspondence, telegrams, or long distance calls to eligibles.

To handle the testing phase of this program in the office of the State Personnel Board, an entirely new clerical unit of six employees headed by a Senior Clerk has been established, and between one-fourth and one-half of the time of one Associate Personnel Examiner has been devoted to its direction. Not all this staff, however, can be charged to typist and stenographic classes since the unit is now processing, by a similar method, examinations for Junior Clerk; Intermediate Clerk; Intermediate Account Clerk; Junior Tabulating Machine Operator; Tabulating Machine Operator; Key Punch Operator, Grade 1; Key Punch Operator, Grade 2; and Hospital Attendant.

Our own evaluation of the plan's success can best be appreciated by noting that during the first six months of 1949 this program examined 13,027 candidates in the twelve classifications and placed 6,800 names on eligible registers. This constituted 26.5 percent of the total number of eligibles placed on registers by our agency during that period. Furthermore, 36.2 percent of the 7,736 permanent appointments made from registers during that period were of eligibles furnished by this program. It is thus obvious that an important portion of our entire examining and certification load is now being handled by this streamlined process. Its demonstrated efficiency has led a program originally developed to meet a critical need for typists and stenographers to expand until it now serves most of the more populous classifications that are found in state employment.

The Role of the Personnel Agency in In-Service Training . . . CHARLES S. WEBER

WHAT A PERSONNEL AGENCY does in the general field of in-service training may depend largely upon its statutory powers, the size of the agency, its available funds and personnel, and the closeness of the agency to its operating departments. Since these are local limiting factors, they are excluded from this discussion, which is intended to deal with what the personnel agency should and should not do in the in-service training area. What the personnel agency actually should do can readily be grouped under four major headings.

Stimulating Training Activity

WHEN A CENTRAL personnel agency decides to enter the in-service training field, its first major goal should be to stimulate departments to handle their own in-service training. In part, this means operating an advisory service, but it also means doing a good public relations selling job.

Resistance from operating departments should be expected. The initial moves made by the personnel agency will likely be viewed with suspicion and as a possible encroachment on the jurisdiction of the old-line departmental "trainers." The in-service training program offered by the central personnel agency must be presented as a service and should be devoid of any policing power or policing functions. If it offers the operating department a service which may be secured without cost or irritation and which directly benefits departmental operation, the initial resistance will not be difficult to overcome.

Stimulating training *within* a department is not the easiest of undertakings. Training involves time, money, work, and trouble. The need must be made clear enough and must always appear great enough to justify the trouble which will be involved. Since, however, the personnel agency has the peculiar advantage of discovering departmental needs and weaknesses, it can often offer convincing justification for the in-service training which it recommends.

Methods of stimulation will need to vary from the subtle to the obviously crude. A large percentage of low grades in an accountants' promotional examination may serve as the basis for urging in-service training in auditing and in government accounting; a request for the reallocation of a class may well be granted with the proviso that the department must provide special in-service training for all employees who will enter the affected class. A department whose operations come under newspaper or other public criticism should receive an immediate offer of assistance from the central personnel agency. Such training assistance dissipates the resistance and suspicion mentioned above and in the long run makes departmental response to training offers almost automatic.

In stimulating departments to carry on their own in-service training programs, the personnel agency can wisely adopt the following suggested principles:

1. With certain notable exceptions to be mentioned later, the personnel agency should not contract to do the actual training.

2. No large training staff is needed by the personnel agency. It should employ the training wisdom, but the training skills should remain in the individual departments.

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3. The personnel agency ought not try to run its training program from a central desk. The training officer should be a field man who operates in close contact with departmental activities; he must see and know what goes on if he is to make proper training evaluations and give proper training advice. His desk work should be a secondary, not a primary, consideration.

4. The training officer should know what is going on within the personnel agency so that he can capitalize on training needs which are brought to light by central personnel operations in other areas.

Making Facilities Available

As a second basic responsibility, the personnel agency should make training facilities available to other government departments. Once department officials accept the personnel agency in its role of stimulating in-service training (that is, once they cease to distrust the motive of the personnel agency in making training one of its major activities), the requests for aid become almost embarrassing in their profusion.

These are some of the facilities which the central personnel agency can wisely provide:

1. Manuals, training outlines, and models.

2. Leads on subject-matter specialists for the possible use of the departments in their training programs.

3. Aid in planning and operating the actual training program.

4. Instruction, so that departmental training officers will do a better training job.

5. Arrangements for formal courses—and especially for those short courses and institutes which properly classify as in-service training.

6. Training programs which no one department could underwrite by combining the needs of several or of all departments. Examples are conference training for administrators and executives, personnel institutes, mimeographing schools, centralized training for institutional cooks, laundry workers, etc.

7. A central point for the exchange of training information and resources. The training officer usually knows which department does the best training job in supervisory practices, in interviewing, in human relations (to mention a few topics), and can often arrange for the transfer of material and personnel.

Providing Training

The third responsibility confronting the personnel agency in the in-service training field should be exercised as rarely as possible. In a few instances, the personnel agency should provide the actual training. The training of personnel and training officers, and instruction in merit system practices are functions which are fundamentally the responsibility of the central personnel agency and are likely to end as specific responsibilities of the training officer. Often too, unless the central agency takes the initiative, there will be little real training done in human relations or in such special fields as government letter-writing. But these specific training undertakings should be exceptions to rather than the rule.

Providing Evaluation

To most personnel people evaluation means the development of qualitative and quantitative measurements which ultimately result in a good deal of paper work. This is a kind of post-mortem evaluation which benefits neither the patient nor the corpse but which is justified on the theory that it will be helpful in future cases. Actually, it results in little real valuation. The time to call the training doctor in is while the patient is still alive.

Training should be evaluated and changes and improvements made while the training is going on. When necessary, personnel, method, timing, or other controls should be changed in the middle of the training program. "Faculty meetings" should be called between sessions and what has been done and what is still to

be done should be critically examined. Training is too expensive an undertaking, and poor training is too deadly in its effect on personnel, to permit sitting around compiling academic evaluations.

This one point we should never forget: If the central personnel agency enters the training field, the one thing the operating department will expect will be sound evaluation. If the personnel agency cannot give that advice when and where it is needed, it had better get a new training officer or get out of the training business.

These four things could very well be said to constitute the major responsibilities which mark the role of the personnel agency in in-service training. Actually, however, they are merely four general statements which the central personnel agency must translate into practical operations.

Shadow and Substance

TRAINING closely parallels and follows education and thus adopts the fashions and trends which are current in the educational world. In education there is always a latent assumption that if the "right" method is used, the result must be right. More than one personnel agency and more than one training officer have accepted this notion and reduced training to a shadow rather than a substance.

Conference method, participation, simulated incidents, visual aids are all possible training devices (and all are particularly popular at the moment), but the mere use of a popular device is no guarantee that the training result will be good. The central agency that peddles these devices as automatic guarantees of effective training is peddling shadow for substance. Visual aids, for example, are good ways of holding interest and of transmitting information, but their value as training devices is much more limited than many trainers admit. The learner, not the picture, must perform the operation.

There is danger therefore that the department may make the mistake of assuming that any training is good because it is "in-service" training, and that the central personnel agency may make the mistake of assuming that training is good because a "good" method is being used.

There is danger too that the central agency, by its very type of habitual thinking, may substitute "principles" for action. Platitudes such as "training begins at the top" are meaningless when training is needed and no "top" support is available. It should make little difference to the trainer whether training begins at the top or at the bottom or in the middle or from the side. Nor is there justification in wasting time arguing whether training should be done by the immediate supervisor or by some other supervisor. It should be done by the best man available —and only by the best man.

Personnel people are usually preoccupied with technical operations. They try to be rigidly objective. They prefer that an applicant be considered as an unidentified number instead of by an identifiable name; they insist they classify jobs not people. That may be quite proper —for those functions where objectivity is a virtue.

Training is the least technical and the most humanized of all our personnel agency activities. It cannot be done well if it is operated from a technician's point of view.

For the personnel agency to enter the training field and to view it as one more objective technical activity would be a confession that the agency understood training only from the textbook angle.

Developing the Program

IF THE CENTRAL personnel agency is to make the greatest possible training contribution to the operating departments, it must of necessity have an acceptable training program available. Departmental programs frequently demonstrate some of the following basic training defects: reliance upon speeches instead of actual training materials and methods; the tendency to try to handle topics in too brief a time; the tendency to try to cover "the water-

front," or at least to cover too much material in the time allowed; and the failure to plan training programs in terms of years.

A central personnel agency, working in the training area, can gently but firmly discourage these practices by offering "know-how" that is usually badly needed. The personnel agency must be prepared to demonstrate and to explain what an effective training conference involves and must be able to illustrate what will be gained if the annual, disjointed training session gives way to long-range planning which will provide training continuity and substance. Above all, the central agency should discourage the type of training that provides training in human relations and in public relations by means of thirty-minute lectures.

Nor should we overlook the manner in which the personnel agency can achieve uniformity between different groups which meet at different times to discuss the same training subjects. By pooling resources, by making the best resources available to all, and by judicious evaluation and comparison, the personnel agency can bring about uniformity, not on an average but on the highest possible level. This is a service which the central agency, and probably only a central agency, is peculiarly fitted to render.

Finally, the personnel agency should provide the operating departments with a "how-to-do-it" training information service. There is surprisingly little solid training information available. What is the best way to present a case study for training purposes? How should a training panel be set up? How much control must one have over a training conference? What are good blackboard techniques? How can the individual treatment group at a prison offer new prison guards as effective a presentation of its activity as does the custodial staff? These, and many other questions, are representative of what departmental people need in the way of training information. They will get very little information unless the central personnel agency has a training officer prepared and equipped to provide the answers.

This, then, can be the role of the personnel agency in in-service training. It would begin as a purely voluntary service, based on giving advice and stimulating action. It would ultimately end by having the departments depend on the central agency for the direction, control, and evaluation of their in-service training programs. Such a program would offset the technical exactness and objectivity and the "police control" factors of much personnel agency activity; instead, it would represent the central agency in a service function which in the end might prove to be the most important contribution the central agency could make toward improving operating department personnel.

Examining for Scientific Personnel . . . . JAMES A. NIELSON

BOARDS OF CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINERS have existed for many years in Navy Department establishments, particularly in shipyards and other industrial establishments, and are recognized as an established part of the Navy's personnel program. Until three years ago, however, these Boards functioned largely for the recruitment and examining of industrial-type labor. Since that time, their scope has been considerably expanded and, in addition, they operate under a well-defined policy agreed upon by the Navy Department and the Civil Service Commission and outlined in Navy Department Civilian Personnel Instructions.

The Navy Department supports some of the principal research and development programs of the federal government—programs that demand the talents of a wide variety of professional and technical personnel. The recruitment and examination of this personnel, within the traditional framework of federal civil service policy and procedure, is a major problem of personnel administration. Quite apparently, it is essential both to adapt the existing organization to new problems as they arise as well as develop new techniques and procedures.

Program Used by Navy to Recruit Research Personnel

IN RECOGNITION of these factors, the Office of Industrial Relations of the Navy Department authorized the establishment of two specialized Boards of Civil Service Examiners to recruit and examine professional and subprofessional personnel for naval research activities. One board serves the Potomac River Naval Command, the other the Southern California area. These boards are not established under existing regulations of the Navy Department but are organized by the Civil Service Commission under a policy established for the federal field establishments, with the exception of the Navy Department.[1] In so far as they enjoy autonomy of operation, their policies are determined by the senior professional personnel of the naval research and development activities which they serve.

This paper is an attempt to explore and describe the development of policy and the solution of examining problems by the Board in Southern California, namely the Navy Department Joint Board of Civil Service Examiners.

The Navy Department Joint Board was organized in February, 1947. After organization, the first actions were the selection of an Executive Secretary as administrative head of the Board and the development of an examining program. To date, the program developed by the Board has resulted in the following concrete accomplishments:

1. The issuance of examinations in the professional fields of physics, engineering, chemistry, metallurgy, mathematics, meteorology, statistics, scientific staff assistant, scientific research administrator, scientific illustrator, technical editor, and librarian.
2. The issuance of announcements for subprofessional positions of scientific aide, engineering aide, and laboratory mechanic.
3. Participation with the Board of U.S.

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[1] Since February, 1946, the U.S. Civil Service Commission has decentralized its recruitment and examining functions to the field establishments of the federal government in a way that is largely unprecedented in public personnel administration.

Civil Service Examiners of the Potomac River Naval Command for P-1 scientific examinations covering such fields as mathematics, physics, chemistry, engineering, and psychology.

4. Development of approved rating schedules for examinations in the above-mentioned fields.

5. Establishment of eligible registers in the above-mentioned fields.

This work, of course, represents a large expenditure of time and effort on the part of personnel administrators and technicians and also on the part of the scientific staff of the three laboratories served by the Board.

Evaluation of the Program

After two and one-half years I believe we are now in position to make some tentative observations and evaluations of the Board's effectiveness and its method of operation.

The first thing that is apparent is that the policy members of the Board are very much concerned with their prerogatives in the development of examination standards. They are equally desirous that professional and scientific personnel from the laboratories check standards sufficiently to insure acceptance by the staffs. The policy members are reluctant to accept anything, including Civil Service Commission examining standards, at face value. In all cases, they have related the standards to the positions against which they will be applied. This is true even though the final result to date has been reasonably consistent with examining standards developed and approved by the central office of the Civil Service Commission.

The Executive Secretary and his staff have, on the other hand, been concerned primarily with the necessary staff work to insure information covering items to be discussed in policy meetings and the development of procedures for handling the "flow of paper" passing through the Board as a result of its announcements. However, in recent months there has been an increasing tendency on the part of the policy board to delegate a larger degree of operating freedom and responsibility in the development of examining drafts to the Executive Secretary and his staff. I believe that this tendency will become more common as the work of the Board progresses and it becomes obvious to the policy members that the Executive Secretary adequately represents their point of view. On the other hand, the Executive Secretary has operated with considerable caution in assuming increased responsibility without the full concurrence of policy members and has been careful to consult them as well as other scientific personnel on any questions that are related to subject matter problems.

Examining Problems

In the development of this examining program, certain problems have come to the forefront, and continually recurred, which warrant special consideration.

The largest number of problems are related to classification matters, such as the lack of an adequate classification series covering many scientific positions in the Navy's research program; the problem of how to compensate extra responsibilities involved in some subprofessional positions; and how to resolve certain conflicts which arise between classification technicians and the examining board regarding what constitutes a professional position.

The lack of an adequate classification series and of specifications is particularly acute in the case of electronics engineer, ordnance engineer, and psychologist. Electronics engineering, for example, is a new field and in many instances involves about an equal mixture of engineering and physics, a fact not adequately recognized in position classification. Ordnance engineer, on the other hand, is a "catch-all" series into which classification technicians have thrown a great number of positions occupied by individuals who have received their training in other scientific fields, such as mechanical, electrical, and chemical engineering. In the case of psychologist, the situation is complicated by

the fact that some engineers and other persons who could be more accurately described as "training supervisors" have been classified as psychologists on the basis of their work of training fleet personnel in the use of electronic equipment. However, it should be stated that these particular problems appear to be moving toward solution through the formation of a "technician series," the occupants of which will be paid at professional rates but will not receive strictly professional classifications.

Section 4 of the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, allows the extension, for pay purposes, of subprofessional positions into the professional classification series where range of responsibility for the subprofessional position is not adequately encompassed in the subprofessional class. There has been considerable reluctance, however, on the part of classification technicians to utilize fully the provision of Section 4. The result has been that some managements have been inclined to classify essentially subprofessional positions in the professional series. Most incumbents of such positions can rarely qualify in professional examinations. This problem is particularly acute in the federal service at the present time because conversion from a war to a peacetime basis requires employees holding war service indefinite and temporary appointments to qualify in competitive probational examinations.

A closely related problem is the apparent propensity on the part of classification technicians in the Navy Department to classify what are essentially specialized technical positions in the professional series on the basis of a portion of the work being carried on at the professional level. On the other hand, the examining board has tended to require what is euphemistically described as a "broad professional background" for such positions, with the result that many incumbents of these positions are unable to qualify.

One approach to this problem has been a proposal to organize a Classification Board, along the lines of the Examining Board, to be composed of professional and scientific personnel in the Navy laboratories in Southern California. Although formation of such a group does not appear to be an immediate possibility, nor necessarily desirable, this Board would have the dual function of studying the adequacy of existing classification series and recommending additions and changes and of reviewing existing classifications of specific positions to test their adequacy in relation to classification standards.

Another very difficult problem stems from the requirements of the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944. This Act prohibits the Civil Service Commission from requiring minimum educational standards for positions in the federal service, unless the position is such that a person having only certain educational requirements could be expected to perform the duties of the position, as, for example, Medical Officers. The Act also requires the Civil Service Commission to publish such decisions, with detailed reasons therefor, in the Federal Register. As a result, there are a considerable number of positions in the professional field that do not have minimum educational requirements and allow individuals to qualify on the basis of their having gained through experience the equivalent knowledge they would have gained through education. This is a particularly difficult problem in connection with engineering positions. It soon became apparent that the numerous panel members were inconsistent in their rating on this factor and were applying rather loose standards. In an effort to meet this problem, the Board appointed a special panel to develop objective standards of educational equivalence and review all applications from individuals who did not have the required formal education. This panel has developed objective standards for engineering positions, for example, that are equal to, and in some instances higher than, similar standards developed by other offices of the Commission. Another result has been to rate ineligible a considerable number of applicants who failed to meet the educational requirements on a formal

basis. For example, at the Naval Electronics Laboratory in San Diego, approximately 70 out of 120 incumbents of positions appointed during the war period were rated ineligible on the basis that they did not meet educational equivalency requirements.

The handling of appeals resulting from the large number of ineligible ratings given engineering applicants, many of whom were incumbents of positions, became a considerable task. Special procedures had to be devised. In the case of incumbents, mass meetings were held in the laboratories, and policy members explained in general terms the rating procedures followed by the Board. In addition, the Board staff assigned an employee who worked with a professional man at each of the laboratories and discussed personally with the ineligible applicant the reason for his ineligibility. This was done in order that the individual would have a clear understanding of the reason for his ineligibility and would also have adequate information upon which to base an appeal. In the case of applicants lacking educational equivalency, this procedure has had the further effect of pointing out specific deficiencies that the incumbents might be able to remedy over a short period of time. It should also have the long-run effect of raising the professional stature of employees in the laboratories, an important consideration since much of the staff was recruited during the war from applicants not possessing entirely desirable professional qualifications. A letter was sent to all who did not work in one of the three laboratories advising them that they might call at the Board for a personal explanation of their ineligibility or write for a detailed written explanation. This procedure was necessary in order to insure substantially equal treatment to incumbent and nonincumbent applicants.

Effect of the Program on Civil Service Regulations

THE PART played by the Civil Service Commission, and particularly by the Twelfth U.S. Civil Service Region in San Francisco and its Branch Office in Los Angeles, has been considerable. The Los Angeles Office of the Commission has, with few exceptions, had a member present at all policy meetings and has been in close contact with the Executive Secretary of the Board on matters of policy and procedure. In addition, the Board has been visited by top-level administrators of the Twelfth U.S. Civil Service Region, including the Regional Director; the Chief of the Regional Examining and Placement Division; the Chief, Examining Section; and the Chief of the Physical Science Unit. These visits have, in my opinion, served a very useful purpose. First of all, they have convinced policy members of the substantial interest the Civil Service Commission has in their problems and programs; secondly, they have materially expedited the solution of problems of mutual concern to the Board and the Civil Service Commission. In all of these contacts the Civil Service Commission assisted the Board to solve its problems rather than attempting to direct decisions. In many instances, the decisions arrived at by this group have been harmonious with decisions made by the Civil Service Commission in similar situations. However, it is my opinion that the Commission would fail utterly if it attempted to force too hasty a decision on many of these problems, since it is dealing with a group of professional and scientific persons of considerable intellectual attainment and a habit and discipline of questioning basic premises and traditions.

The operation of this program has pointed out the need for continually adapting standardized procedure to special problems. The solutions arrived at in the case of rating educational equivalency and the special appeal procedures adopted by the Board illustrate my point. Finally, I think it is apparent that the Civil Service Commission and the federal government are in a position to benefit greatly by an operation of this sort in several im-

portant ways. In the first place, the Navy Department Joint Board is composed of the best personnel that can be obtained to administer the Civil Service Commission's Board program. I think it is apparent that no central personnel agency is in a position to command the wealth of talent and "know-how" on a full-time basis which is made available on a part-time basis through this Board for examining professional and scientific applicants. Secondly, the Commission's professional and scientific examining is continually challenged by persons of high caliber associated with an organization such as the Navy's Southern California group. No idea is sacred to the scientific mind, and we may continue to expect a continuous examination of and challenge to existing policies and procedures.

The operation of this Board has also had two other important results from the point of view of the Civil Service Commission. Applicants for scientific and professional positions are more willing to accept the judgment of examinations developed and rated by their professional superiors and peers than those administered by personnel technicians. I believe, also, that this program has had the important result of winning the sympathies of scientific personnel to the federal merit principle. When the Board was first organized it was the expressed conviction of several members that they were performing a job that they considered necessary only because of the Civil Service Act. I believe it is a fair statement to say that these earlier points of view have been almost completely changed. These same individuals are now largely convinced, if as yet skeptical of specific methods and procedures, that a professional and scientific examining program can be carried on within the framework of the Civil Service Commission's organization. They also believe that examination standards should be pitched at a point where only adequately trained individuals can qualify for professional and scientific positions.

Conclusion

THE PROGRAM described in this paper has many advantages over our traditional approach to recruitment and examination of scientific personnel. It is not, however, adequate to the complete demands and needs of a scientific research program. In the past, examinations have been made for specific positions, positions conceived of and labeled largely in terms of academic discipline, for example, physics, chemistry, engineering, etc. A change, however, has taken place. The labels have remained largely unchanged, but the content of the positions has been radically altered. Specialization in science, as in many other fields, is no longer vertical but horizontal. While apparently requiring increased specialization on the part of personnel, it has in fact cut across additional disciplines in such a way as to make traditional lines almost indistinguishable. Electronics engineering is an excellent example; it cuts directly across traditional fields of engineering and physics. Ordnance engineering is another example; it is a field that involves the application of numerous scientific disciplines in an almost infinite variety. It is therefore necessary for professional personnel administrators to consider the problem of attempting to examine on the basis of job content.

The solution to this very difficult problem, as proposed by the Navy Department Joint Board, is to announce an examination in the scientific research and development fields under a generic title such as "Scientist." Applicants would be given a preliminary rating on the basis of a grade determination in relation to the professional classification scale in the federal service. In addition, they would receive preliminary classifications based on their academic and work experience, with particular attention paid, at least in the higher grades, to the more narrow fields of specialization. Each position in the research field would then be considered individually on specific job content, regardless of its formal classification title. Finally, an effort would be made to formulate specific

requirements for the position according to the personnel available, both in and out of the service. Applications would be rated against special qualifications, and certification would be made from the top ranking eligibles meeting those qualifications.

This is an approach that the Civil Service Commission has experimented with through its selective certification procedure for the past several years but which has never been carried to its completely logical conclusion. Whether or not the problem can be approached and solved in this manner alone is questionable. An ultimate solution depends on a combined attack on the part of both examining and classification specialists. It is, of course, admittedly an experimental approach. But it seems to be one that might more adequately recognize the realistic demands of occupations and persons in the scientific personnel field than the more formalized approach heretofore attempted.

You and a Handbook for Your Employees . . . . . . WILLIAM BRODY

INASMUCH as relatively few government agencies have published employee handbooks and there are definite indications of current interest in this subject, it seems reasonable to anticipate that at least some new publications in this field will be issued during the coming year. You, yourself, may be considering one for your organization. Under these circumstances, it may prove profitable to review some of the elements which must be considered in preparing and publishing a handbook.

Usually, the principal objectives of distributing employee handbooks are to set the tone of the relationship between the worker and the agency and to present official information on policies, regulations, obligations, rights, and privileges. Some more specific accomplishments of a superior handbook, as summarized in a publication of the National Board of Fire Underwriters[1], are as follows:

1. Bringing company policies to the attention of employees in a correct manner
2. Informing employees of necessary regulations
3. Telling all employees the company story in the same way
4. Relieving employees and supervisors of the need for making arbitrary decisions
5. Acting to prevent discrimination
6. Arousing the interest of new employees
7. Sustaining interest of older employees
8. Preventing inconsistencies in administering personnel problems
9. Impressing employees with the importance of their company's business
10. Describing the company's organization structure
11. Convincing personnel of the necessity for standard practices
12. Supplementing orientation programs
13. Stopping poor work habits before they start
14. Providing an effective aid for supervisors
15. Furnishing employees with a constant reminder of their privileges, rights, and obligations
16. Aiding community public relations by taking the company story into the homes of employees
17. Clarifying employee doubts and preventing misinformation
18. Capitalizing the customary feeling of personal satisfaction associated with obtaining a new position
19. Projecting the true character of the company into the minds of the employees
20. Going on record with the employees as to where the management stands on all employee relations matters

The New York City Department of Health used to give each employee a pocket-sized pamphlet containing 21 pages of small print. This was designated as *Rules for Employees* and contained only a very brief formal statement of the organization of the department together with thirty-six numbered rules.

This was superseded in August, 1948, by an employee handbook entitled *YOU*

[1] *Planning Effective Employee Handbooks* (1948), pp. 11, 12.

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and YOUR Department of Health. This booklet consists of fifty-two 10½" x 7½" pages printed in large type with wide margins, enclosed in a blue, black, and white illustrated cover. Appropriate humorous drawings are included in each section of the handbook. The organization of the department is depicted by means of a large illustrated chart. Throughout, emphasis is placed on the employee's viewpoint, and an attempt is made to tell him what he wants to know about the agency, his rights and privileges, and what is expected of him.[2]

To Publish or Not to Publish

THE EMPLOYEE HANDBOOK is a reflection of the rules and regulations and the customs and traditions of the agency. In the opinion of the author, a brand-new agency should not attempt to publish a handbook; a simple statement of basic personnel policies would be more appropriate. Several years of experience are needed to fill in the details which constitute the handbook.

Should a well established agency publish a handbook? Again, in the opinion of the author, the answer to this question should be in the negative only if the agency is so small that every employee has frequent and informal contact with the top executive. If basic principles and policies are relayed to employees by different supervisors without being reduced to writing, conflicting interpretations and inconsistent treatment are inevitable. If they are reduced to writing, but not made easily accessible to all employees, suspicion and doubt are likely to prevail.

[2] The potential interest in employee handbooks is indicated by the receipt within a few months after publication of 248 unsolicited communications concerning *YOU and YOUR Department of Health,* exclusive of second or third letters from a single source, correspondence within the New York City Department of Health, and telephone calls. These letters originated in 36 states and in 5 areas outside the continental United States. They came from 17 different federal units, 55 state departments, 49 city agencies, 28 county units, 27 other public agencies (principally universities and libraries), 41 quasi-public organizations (including health councils, schools, and similar groups), and 31 private concerns.

Method of Reproduction

IF A HANDBOOK is to be published, the question of the medium of reproduction must be considered at an early point. The handbook will either be published in an "inexpensive" form (hectograph, mimeograph, multigraph) or it will be printed. Despite its relatively high cost, the printing process is strongly recommended—even for small agencies. The prestige, attractiveness, and flexibility of a well-composed printed page, and the premium advantages of color and top-notch illustrations are well worth the additional investment. Competitive bidding among reliable printers will assure the lowest reasonable expense.

In considering the cost, it is important to think in unit terms. How much will a single copy cost?[3] Compare that amount with the cost of recruiting an employee, or of the physical equipment assigned to him when he starts work, or of his initial training, or of any other technique for improving morale.

Do you want to give your employees a set of mimeographed sheets which they will read only under compulsion and discard as soon as they dare, or an appealing booklet that they want to read through promptly and keep for future reference?

Compiling the Basic Material

IT IS IMPORTANT to accumulate as early as possible all material which may be of assistance in furnishing the actual content of the handbook.

Many agencies which are contemplating a modern employee handbook for the first time have previously issued a compilation of "rules and regulations." This is a good starting point, although the end product will be quite different. All appropriate written orders, organization charts, functional charts or statements, annual reports, procedures manuals, and similar documents should be reviewed carefully and any relevant material recorded.

[3] The printing and binding of *YOU and YOUR Department of Health* cost approximately 25 cents per copy.

The services of people who are familiar with the actual customs and traditions of the organization—which in some cases supplement, and in other cases actually supersede, the official regulations—should be enlisted to reduce this "unwritten law" to writing so far as possible.

Handbooks which have been issued by progressive agencies should be studied very carefully for hints and suggestions. No one publication compiled by another agency could possibly be taken over bodily (an employee handbook is not a true reflection of the organization unless it is unique), but a judicious selection of ideas from various sources is likely to lead to good results.[4]

Preparation of First Draft

THE COMPILATION of appropriate material and the actual writing of the first draft constitute a formidable task. Many an agency has enthusiastically planned an employee handbook which has failed to survive the rigors of the first draft. (Not that the employee manual is the only management tool which is susceptible to this fate.)

It would be well to have several capable writers assigned to this critical step, if possible. The production deadline should be a liberal one, so that they can divert their minds with other responsibilities from time to time.

No matter how many participate in this and subsequent stages, provision should be made for one over-all editor with full responsibility (and corresponding authority) for deciding all questions except those relating to changes in policy or regulations.

A tentative outline should be drawn up early and revised frequently. One study of 237 employee handbooks[5] identifies 153 different items; another analysis of 30 handbooks itemizes 67 subjects.[6] Interestingly enough, in neither report is there any single item which is found in all the manuals reviewed. Furthermore, there is little consistency between the studies concerning the topics most frequently included. Another investigation[7] enumerates 414 items found in 171 handbooks, without indicating the frequency of occurrence.

The ten subjects most frequently encountered in each of the first two of these studies are, in the order of their popularity:

National Board of Fire Underwriters	*Fisher and Rudge*
Vacations	Welcome or introduction
Personnel records, changes	History of the company
Group insurance	Employee group insurance
Company business history	Payroll policy, rates
Pay day	Product description
Office hours	Compensation insurance
Holidays	Safety rules and regulations
Use of telephones	Federal old-age benefits
Salary, advancement, promotion	Absences
Suggestion plans	Identification badges

A study of analyses of this kind and of actual handbooks which have been issued will yield a wealth of suggestions; the actual material which has been collated within the agency will be equally fruitful.

Many questions will arise as work progresses. Regulations which are obviously

[4] The text of actual material on 89 subjects, reproduced (sometimes with humorous illustrations) from various manuals, is contained in Geneva Seybold's *Company Rules—Aids to Teamwork*, National Industrial Conference Board, 1948. The alert observer will note how the same ideas, in the same words or with the same drawings, appear again and again.

[5] National Board of Fire Underwriters, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

[6] Austin M. Fisher and Fred G. Rudge, "Employee Manuals—A Key to Improved Employee Relations." *Personnel*, March, 1946, p. 290.

[7] American Management Association, *How to Prepare and Publish an Employee Manual* (1942), pp. 6-10.

obsolete, and regulations which possibly should become obsolete as quickly as possible, will be encountered. Inconsistencies in material secured from different sources (or sometimes from the same source) will be revealed. Changes, deletions, and desirable additions to the large and widespread accumulation of executive orders, regulations, directives, memoranda, notices, and releases will clamor for attention and action.

All of these should be carefully noted, with documentation concerning the origin of each item and the basis for recommending consideration. No writer or editor should be authorized to make any alteration of this type without written instructions from the administrative head of the agency or other specified official. This necessity for the executive to come to grips with archaic, authoritarian, unnecessary, disparaging, ambiguous, unintelligible, contradictory, and ignored orders constitutes one of the most important (and usually unexpected) results of the process of preparing an employee handbook.

Everyone engaged in the preparation of the preliminary draft should be informed of the nature of the style which will characterize the final document and should be aware of its implications even in their earliest attempts. The greater the emphasis placed on this element, the easier will be the task of subsequent revision. The style of the handbook is of prime importance and will be referred to again later in this discussion.

"Clean" copy is important at every step. An intelligent and accurate stenographer or typist is of inestimable value.

Rewriting

As THE FIRST draft material comes in, it should be carefully edited. Some of it will be eliminated as obviously extraneous; other portions will be expanded or contracted; ideas will be generated for desirable additional subjects. The style should be worked over carefully, and all subjects which require executive decision clearly indicated.

The second draft which results from this editing process should be mimeographed if possible and copies (clearly labelled "Draft") distributed to all key officials, a selected group of first-line supervisors, representative employees, and employee organizations. Each of these recipients should understand the purposes of the handbook and the importance of his cooperation in reading the draft and making suggestions for amendments, eliminations, and additions. If parts of the first draft are unduly delayed, and if the publication date begins to seem close, it may be expedient to distribute the second draft in sections. This should be avoided if possible because the readers will not know whether a missing item should be reported or whether it will appear in a later portion. Furthermore, they will be less likely to detect possible inconsistencies in the text.

It is of great importance that the suggestions received from these selected readers be given very careful consideration, even if it means rewriting practically the entire manuscript. As a matter of fact, the more often it is edited and rewritten, the better the final product is likely to be. The semifinal draft should be reviewed critically by key officials and by all whose responses to the second draft revealed interest and ability.

Style

STYLE IS the quality which most strikingly typifies the difference between a good, modern, employee handbook and a poor handbook or a mere manual of rules and regulations. Instead of cold, formal, stilted, didactic, dictatorial language, the best handbooks are presented in a breezy, friendly, informal, cheerful, personal style. The interests of the employee as well as his rights and privileges receive full consideration. The spirit of working things out together replaces an enumeration of "thou shalt nots."

Pre-printing Preparations

AFTER THE MANUSCRIPT has been revised, reviewed, and rewritten, and after all pol-

icy questions have been finally resolved, the printer's copy should be typed. This should be triple-spaced (or at least double-spaced) on one side of the paper only and with wide margins. Pages should be numbered consecutively without gaps or subdivisions. At least one carbon copy should be provided; you don't want to do the entire job over if the original should be lost.

At this point (if not earlier) some technical questions will have to be answered.

1. What shall the size of the page be? In answer to this most people will respond, almost automatically, "pocket size." The legend that an employee handbook must be small enough to carry around in a pocket or a pocketbook has gained extensive circulation, and a substantial proportion of all handbooks are so designed. But who carries them around in a pocket or pocketbook? Our pockets are already overloaded and our suits are out of shape; as for our pocketbooks—just take a look at their contents. A larger size contains much more information in fewer pages, can be made more attractive by varied spacing and larger illustrations, and can be kept conveniently on a desk or workbench where it will be handy when needed.

2. How about size of type? The larger the type, the more likely it is to be read. It's almost impossible to be overgenerous in this respect. 12 point is better than 10 point and 14 point is better still. Liberal space between lines is also desirable.

3. And margins? The wider the better. They not only improve the appearance of the page; they also provide space for conscientious employees to note changes subsequent to publication—a less expensive and more practical device than a loose-leaf manual.

4. Should there be illustrations? Yes, if at all possible. Either photographs (not portraits, but representations of actual employee activities teeming with human interest) or appropriate line or wash drawings, or a discreet combination of the two may be effective.

No art work should be approved unless it is on a professional level of proficiency and is consistent with the style of the textual matter. Most agencies will be hard pressed to muster sufficient funds to defray printing costs, and the addition of an artist's fee might wreck the entire project. Fortunately, the very nature of government work enables an administrator with ingenuity to overcome this hurdle. Because of the real community interest in government activities and the specialized interest in the field of each agency's program, it should not be too difficult to arrange for a public-spirited individual or business concern to volunteer the temporary services of a professional artist.

5. How many copies should be printed? Before answering this question, consideration must be given to the prospective life expectancy of the handbook. If it is the first of its kind, ideas for improvements will begin to crop up soon after publication, and not more than two or three years should elapse before a revised edition is prepared. The revised edition should serve for perhaps five years.

The anticipated number of new employees during the appropriate number of years is the basis for determining the number of copies. But don't make the mistake of distributing a new handbook only to new employees; the other workers will resent it. To the number of expected newcomers, add the present staff. Then provide additional copies for professional dissemination. If the results are good, you'll want others to profit from your experience. A strategic distribution to selected schools, professional organizations, and other sources of potentially well-qualified future employees is an excellent recruiting technique.

The total should be rounded off to a convenient figure. Naturally, the unit price will be lower for a larger quantity. The printer will usually agree to hold the type for a few months, and a second printing (if needed) will not be expensive.

6. Other basic questions relate to for-

mat, number of pages, quality of paper, quality of cover stock, color of paper and of cover, color (or colors) of ink, type face for textual material and for various headings and sub-headings, and method of binding.

These technical questions should be answered by some one who is both competent and reliable. Technical services in this field might be obtained in a manner similar to that suggested for art work. The judgment of a good printer is also valuable.

The same type of technical assistance should be made available during the successive stages of galley proof, revised galley proof, dummy, and page proof. The National Publicity Council has issued a pamphlet which will be of great assistance.[8]

To make the handbook most effective a detailed table of contents and a comprehensive index should be included.

8. A letter of welcome to the individual employee from the top administrator is usually included as part of the handbook. If this executive is self-effacing and aware of the possibility that the life of the handbook may extend beyond his own tenure, he might prefer a separate letter, to be inserted rather than bound. The practice of including lists of names of officials in printed employee manuals should be discouraged.

9. Don't forget to print the publication date.

Distribution

When the handbooks finally arrive from the printer, arrangements should be made for distribution to all employees, and care should be taken to insure that no one is omitted. Requirement of a signed receipt is a wise precaution. In order to increase the likelihood that the employee will retain the handbook, it is usually stated that the copy must be turned in when the employee leaves the service.

The contents of the employee handbook should be utilized as the core material for an orientation program; if this is done, employees will be stimulated to read the manual. Another device sometimes resorted to for motivation is a brief, required quiz. But the most successful technique for insuring that the handbook will be read consists of an attractive format and an intriguing style.

Summary

As is true in so many areas of personnel administration, it is impossible to compute the value of an employee handbook in dollars and cents. How can you place a price on an employee's pride in his organization, his confidence in fair play and equitable treatment on the part of supervisors, his understanding of the functions of the agency, his familiarity with what is expected of him and what can reasonably be expected by him?

The values of a handbook are real even if they are not directly measurable. These values can be enhanced if efforts are made to secure a publication of the highest possible quality. There is no limit to the possibility of improvement in the two most important attributes of your employee handbook—style and physical appearance.

[8] Alexander Crosby, *Pamphlets That Pull.*

An Illinois Group Activity Test

. . . JANE M. PETERSEN

EXAMINATIONS can be fun! And an examination which is fun can be the answer to a personnel problem. When the Illinois Civil Service Commission was faced with the problem of selecting personnel for a position where the primary consideration was the ability to make others have fun, an unusual project resulted.

Recreation Aides are successful employees when they make others have fun. They do this by leading groups of adults and children in games, dancing, and sports as part of the recreational therapy program of state welfare institutions and schools. Since they work closely with the mental patients in all recreational activities, much of the success of the therapy program depends upon the quality of personnel who fill these jobs. Recreation Aides need no special background; they are given instruction on the job through a well-developed training program in the institutions. The Illinois Civil Service Commission was therefore faced with the problem of developing an examination which would select persons who could benefit from training and do a good job.

Conferences with the director of the recreation program and observation of Aides at work helped determine the type of people needed for the job. Successful employees were those who could work well in a group, who had a natural enthusiasm for recreational activities, and who possessed the leadership qualities, physical agility, and sense of rhythm necessary for effective recreation work.

Much of the extensive recruiting for the examination was directed toward recent high school graduates. A varied and interesting group of applicants appeared: a former high school athlete wanted to teach sports; a grandmother wanted to work in one of the children's schools; a dancer was interested in teaching folk dancing to mental patients. The age of the candidates ranged from seventeen to sixty-nine, and education varied from fifth grade to three years of college.

Selection of the Test Situation

PREVIOUS examinations for this position involved combinations of written test, oral interview, and rating of training and experience. Since it was felt that Recreation Aides should be of at least normal intelligence to benefit from training and to assume the responsibility of the position, a written test was developed for this examination. It included judgment and reasoning problems as well as items on general information and ability to follow instructions. Although the class specification listed high school graduation as desirable, a rating of training and experience did not seem justified.

Obviously, the written test alone was not a sufficient test for this position; the next problem, therefore, was one of deciding how to rate the personal qualities of the candidates. First, the traditional individual oral interview was considered. Verbal ability, which assumes a position of primary importance in an oral interview, is of only secondary importance in this job. Moreover, such qualities as enthusiasm, leadership, and cooperativeness in playing games do not lend themselves to evaluation in the question-answer type interview. A suggested alternative was the group oral interview. While this type of examination provides a group situation,

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here again the verbal factor is predominant. Since neither type of oral interview is closely related to the actual job situation, it is not likely that the behavior of the candidates in the interview would predict job performance.

The most reasonable solution to the testing problem seemed to be a group activity test in which the candidates could actually participate in games, folk-dancing, and athletic activities. This test would permit the examiners to observe the participating candidates in a group situation which closely resembled the job for which they were being examined.

Organizing the Group Activity Test

GAMES AND DANCES were chosen to provide group activities in which the candidates could demonstrate specific qualities. "Active" games were alternated with the "thinking" or "intellectual" games. The "active" games were played first to develop group enthusiasm and to put candidates at ease. Physical agility and enthusiasm were qualities which could be observed in the "active" game, *Guard the Chair*. Players stand in a circle and throw a basketball at a chair placed in the center. Each player is given an opportunity to be the "guard" and to prevent his fellow players from hitting the chair.

Buzz illustrated the "intellectual" game. This is a number game which requires alertness and concentration. Players begin counting with the number one, substituting *"buzz"* for any number in which the digit seven, or any multiple of seven, occurs. Should a player say *"buzz"* in the wrong place, call a wrong number, or say a number when he should have said *"buzz,"* he is eliminated from the game.

Rhythm, leadership, and team spirit were demonstrated in *Truckin' Round the Mountain* and *Gathering Nuts in May*, games that are played to musical accompaniment.

An experienced group leader from the staff of the Department of Public Welfare instructed and led the games. This person had no part in rating the candidates and participated only to the point of keeping the games going smoothly.

More than 100 applicants from all parts of the state were given these examinations at six conveniently located institutions. The recreation hall was an ideal place in which to conduct the examinations; its environment was conducive to active participation and the necessary equipment was readily available.

Two main factors were considered in determining the size of the groups for the activity test. The number of participants had to be large enough to play the games selected and yet small enough for the examiners to observe and rate. Ten to fifteen people appeared to be the best size.

One traveling examining board of three personnel technicians rated all the candidates. Before the examining board went on the road, a demonstration of the test program was given. A group of people from the civil service commission's staff acted as volunteer participants. The games played during the demonstration were identical to those played in the examination. This device provided thorough training for the raters and at the same time made it possible to determine whether the rating scale was usable, the timing of the program sufficient, and the games proper and adequate for bringing out the qualities which were to be observed and measured.

A rating scale designed for the particular qualities to be observed was developed. These qualities were: enthusiasm, ability to follow instructions, ability to cooperate with others, leadership, physical agility, and sense of rhythm. Possible ratings on each trait were: excellent, good, average, poor, and unsatisfactory. As the examiners observed the group, they jotted notes on a check sheet and tentatively ranked the candidates. Grades were transferred to individual sheets after the examination.

Test Administration

WHEN THE CANDIDATES entered the recreation hall, the majority of them had little notion of the kind of examination they

would take. Except for a chance glance at a press release, "Candidates for State Jobs to Play Games," or a notation on admission cards reading, "Wear play shoes," these people had no way of knowing what was in store for them.

A "page" from the Civil Service staff greeted the candidates, collected the admission cards, and distributed the large black and white cloth numerals by which the candidates were identified. The candidates helped one another pin on the numbers, meanwhile exchanging comments about the examination. There was little of the usual tension that the pre-examination situation creates. Just before the examination began, the group leader indicated to the candidates that she was not the examiner and had no part in the rating, but was merely an instructor for the games.

During the games the board members circulated along the sidelines and devoted all their time to observing the candidates. Presently the players became so interested in the games that they paid little attention to the examiners. The examiners themselves could not refrain from smiling at some of the antics of the candidates. The games lasted for an hour unless the board members requested that additional games be played. After fifteen minutes of active games the participants drew up chairs and concentrated on "thinking" games. Then came children's games, folk dancing, and a variation of the *Virginia Reel* for the grand finale. The candidates fell in line for cokes and filed out of the recreation hall, leaving the examiners to their grading.

For each group activity test, grading consumed over an hour. Board members rated the candidates individually, then discussed ratings with one another. Comparison of the ratings showed almost unanimous agreement in the initial ranking of the candidates.

Observations and Conclusions

ALTHOUGH no validation studies have yet been made, some tentative observations and conclusions may be made from Illinois' first experience with the group activity test.

1. The outstanding advantage of the group activity test was that it presented a test situation which closely resembled the job.

2. The game situation offered an ideal setting for observing interaction among the candidates. Certain games gave the candidates a chance to display leadership and cooperativeness, while others emphasized rhythm and agility. The test was an excellent means for measuring ability to follow instructions.

3. Board members were able to devote full time to observing the candidates rather than having to develop the setting for the examination as they would ordinarily do in the individual interview. They were able to request that additional games of a specific nature be added to the program when they felt that they did not have sufficient evidence to make a fair evaluation of the candidates.

4. Although the examinations were held in six centers throughout the state, the conditions for all candidates were approximately the same. The same examining board interviewed all candidates. The games used were always in the same order, with identical instructions given by the same group leader.

5. The examination appeared to be fun for the candidates and the board members, and the candidates seemed to be more at ease than in the individual oral interview. After the games were begun the presence of the raters had little effect upon the candidates.

6. The board members felt that in observing the candidates in a group situation for a period of one hour they could get a truer indication of candidate behavior than in an individual interview of fifteen or twenty minutes. In the group activity test, fifteen people could be examined and graded in two and one-half hours, whereas fifteen-minute individual interviews for the same number of people would have required an entire day.

7. During the examination a candidate was able to note and compare his ability in relation to others in the group. This may decrease the number of appeals from examination failures.

8. The examination seemed less effective for groups in which there were few candidates displaying leadership qualities. It was necessary in these situations for the group leader to participate more actively in the games.

9. It was particularly noticed that in employing the same board to examine the candidates in all parts of the state, consideration was given to characteristics peculiar to each section. For example, the tempo of activity and behavior pattern in southern Illinois varied greatly from that in up-state Illinois. This was evident in many of the games.

10. For some games and dances to be effectively carried out, it is essential that there be good musical accompaniment. Inferior accompaniment in one institution had a noticeable effect on the games.

11. The trial examination was valuable in making the final decisions on which games to include in the test and in acquainting the board members with the rating scale.

12. After the grades were determined, the ratings of some of the candidates who were provisionally employed by the state as Recreation Aides were discussed with Recreation Therapists familiar with the job performance of these people. The examiners and the therapists agreed to a marked degree on the relative excellence of the candidates.

THE BOOKSHELF

The Canadian Bureaucracy. Taylor Cole. Duke University Press, Durham, N. C., 1949. 292 p. $5.00.

The author, Professor Taylor Cole of Duke University, states in his preface that the lack of secondary sources was a limiting factor in preparing his book. He has remedied the deficiency by collecting quantities of first-hand material and condensing it into a complete story of the "problems in the evolution of a modern bureaucracy or civil service in a democratic state with federal features." The sources noted in the book are largely current. They were discovered by the author in his six months' field research in Canada. His main sources were obviously the very civil servants whose daily work he observed and among whom he found those who helped to shape the history of the civil service.

The title of the book will be misleading to the critics of the civil service, who think that bureaucracy means "centralization of authority." The author explains that the title is not used in any invidious sense; it simply refers "to a group of human beings or employees who are performing definite functions considered essential by a community." In other words, bureaucrats are civil servants. The title covers a wider group of employees than those paid from public funds; thus teachers are included, although teachers in Canada are not on federal or provincial payrolls.

The historical background of the federal bureaucracy is indicated as a "long struggle for the adoption of merit system principles in the Dominion." The various civil service acts commencing in 1868 marked stages in the struggle which was legally, if not actually, ended by the passing of the Civil Service Act in 1918. This is the basic statute upon which the powers of the present Civil Service Commission rest.

Of the 120,000 or 137,000 civil servants of the federal service (there is no single, complete, and accurate record of all public employees), the majority have "a sound personnel organization" under the Civil Service Act. Those outside the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission are selected by assorted methods and may have a more fluid personnel administration. However, they have most of the rights of civil servants. The author refers to "patronage" departments but says that the percentage of patronage positions is lower in Canada than in the United States, but considerably higher than the percentage in England.

The control of the Dominion bureaucracy rests with five agencies: Parliament, the Governor in Council, the Treasury Board, the Civil Service Commission, and the Departments. Parliament controls by statutes but makes few which affect public employees. Some changes are made as a result of reports of parliamentary committees, of which there were seven between 1919 and 1939. However, there has been no sustained parliamentary interest in the civil service, although occasional questions are raised about individual employees. Control by the Governor-in-Council (the Cabinet) was expanded in war time under the War Measures Act. Cabinet is closer to personnel matters than Parliament since it deals with Orders-in-Council appointments and exemptions. The Treasury Board, made up of five ministers and the Minister of Finance, is a committee of Cabinet in matters relating to finance, revenue, expenditure, and public accounts. The author states that Treasury Board has "acquired final authority, though not the immediate responsibility over most matters of establishment and organization." He later refers to Treasury rubber stamping recommendations of the Civil Service Commission. The relationship between Treasury and the Civil Service Commission is vague since the author deals with the control function of the Commission, which under the Civil Service Act is in sole charge of appointments and classification. The question of whether the Commission lost power or prestige during the war when the War Measures Act diverted some power temporarily to the Treasury Board seems to have found its answer for the author in two directions. The first is the evidence of confidence and support of the civil service associations and most of the civil servants and, the second, evidence that the Commission has a stronger position with the House of Commons than in 1939.

The relationship of Minister to Deputy Minister and of these to the staff directly or through departmental personnel officers leads the author into another evidence chase that is not too satisfying. The legal provision in the Civil Service Act for the Deputy Minister "to oversee and direct the staff" is reported as variously carried out according to the interest and time of that officer. According to the author, the Personnel Officer has not yet eased the Deputy Minister's office of the burden of personnel administration. Increased responsibility for personnel officers is necessary and promising.

In a final attempt to find an answer to an unformed question about control of the civil service, the author scanned the Report of the Gordon Commission appointed in 1945-46 to study administrative classifications. Interpreting its terms of reference broadly, it proposed certain functional changes which caused bitter controversy. Apparently no answer was found in the report except some suggestions for correcting difficulties arising from what is called "the present dual system of control." It would seem that the author was unduly exorcised over control of the civil service. The complicated organizational and intricate human problems of 130,000 employees at work in the public service provide opportunity for the cooperation of many agencies and the need for control may be more academic than real.

The next four chapters of the book are on employment conditions; employment problems; civil service associations; and employees of Crown corporations and companies. The author has considerable capacity for discovering domestic facts and intimate details. He has kept these in perspective and has not been influenced too much by the gossip and prejudice a casual observor might have accepted.

Employment problems center around five types of employees: the French Canadian, the veteran, the prevailing rate employee, women civil servants, and scientists. Only one of these groups is spoken of as an "explosive" problem. The writer is hopeful that the problem will be solved by present measures.

The status of the Dominion civil service associations "without statutory basis or any powers which are other than advisory in character" results in their having "only a small part in the determination of the policies which govern the economic and political status of public employees." The author, by implying that the associations with statutory authority would have a greater part in policy making, would seem to seek solutions for people's problems in laws and regulations. Whether laws help or hinder depends upon the people who administer them. The Canadian civil service has few acts and relatively few regulations affecting it. Possibly it is fortunate with few.

Turning to the Provinces, the author describes the general status and conditions of work of provincial civil servants who are paid from provincial funds. There is also an account of the group of employees of commercial enterprises under provincial control such as the Ontario Hydro Electric Commission. There is a further chapter devoted to the 88,000 teachers of Canada who are paid from local taxes supplemented by provincial grants for education. The introduction of these chapters, while they needed writing, rather diverts from the main study which was the Dominion civil service. However, the author wished to complete the picture of Canadian bureaucracy and to contrast the methods of provincial and Dominion administration. The chapter that seems to be least necessary to this picture is that on the Canadian public school teacher, even though it is useful in its own right.

The author has, throughout the book, kept the present in perspective with 1939, for the study was intended to discover the developments in personnel administration during and since the war. He has attempted no generalization on the effect of wars on civil services but rather has written a description of the Canadian bureaucracy with a war time background. The conclusions in the final chapter are points of emphasis from previous chapters rather than the results of logical formulae. The questions of bureaucratic responsibility and civil service control do not lend themselves to formulae. The author has restated his opinions on these problems and thus closed a very thorough and well-written book.

Professor Cole has done a good service for Canada by writing the story of the civil service since 1939 so completely and so sympathetically. He has found problems that may seem more real to the research analyst than they are to the civil servant in the street. The book is frank and sincere. It should be read by those whom the author studied and should be useful to students of public administration.—O. E. Ault, *Director of Personnel Selection, Civil Service Commissions of Canada.*

Job Evaluation. John A. Patton and Reynold S. Smith, Jr. Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Chicago, 1949. 316 p. $4.50.

This is a book principally about the formalized techniques employed in private industry to arrive at the value of jobs in relation to each other. The authors are management consultants who have drawn on a considerable experience in job evaluation in preparing the book.

An introductory chapter sketches the growth to present-day popularity of formal job evaluation methods and the objectives of such systems. Four of the last five chapters of the book discuss such problems of wage administration as: getting acceptance for job evaluation among employees (who for the most part are assumed to be organized); supervision and management; the functions and composition of the job evaluation committee; the continuing administration of the system; and the reasons why job evaluation installations have failed. A final chapter describes the limitations as well as the development and administration of merit-rating plans, treating them as an extension of an orderly system of pay administration. Wage and salary determination in the public service are touched upon only when mention is made that the United States Civil Service Commission and many state civil service systems "commonly use the predetermined grading system."

The bulk of the volume is given over to a description of the techniques of job evaluation. The authors' especial preoccupation is with point-rating techniques, although there is cursory mention of other systems. These latter are identified as job ranking (under which an individual or committee ranks jobs in terms of their relative worth); assigning jobs to predetermined grades or classes; and factor comparison. The superiority of point-rating techniques is assumed rather than demonstrated. A part of this judgment of the relative worth of the different types of techniques are the assumptions that jobs must be ranked, if without points, in a hit-or-miss fashion and that predetermined grades which are rather arbitrarily established are therefore bad. The factor-comparison method is considered by the authors to be excessively complex, particularly when it comes to explaining the method to employees. This method is disposed of in a few pages.

The book's rather detailed discussion of the techniques of point rating is prefaced by comments on the need for tailoring the particular plan to the requirements of the situation to which it is to be applied. Type and size of industry and occupational fields represented in the establishment are among the factors which are viewed as affecting the choice of type of plan, the selection of factors, and the determination of weightings. The book then takes the reader through such subjects as the selection and definition of factors (elements of difficulty and responsibility); the development, use, and filing of job descriptions as a means of securing and recording information about jobs; the preliminaries of evaluating the jobs; the methodology of arriving at point scores for all jobs; the selection of sources of comparative wage information; the securing, recording, and analysis of data; and, finally, under the heading of the "wage curve," the rather complicated procedures for affixing specific dollar values to the jobs which are included in the plan.

The book's Foreword does not state what audiences it is directed towards. The volume is not sufficiently detailed and exhaustive to serve as a handbook for the experienced, working technician. It does not present the results of job evaluation research not previously reported, nor does it summarize some of the more important recent research (as, for example, that which relates to the number of factors which are needed). Nor may it be reported that the book is a penetrating analysis of those job rating systems which, with all the trappings of mathematical exactness, produce precise and awe-inspiring results, whose specific characteristics, however, are perhaps in the realm of both the unknown and the unknowable.

Job Evaluation has the distinct merits of being brief and simply written. It includes many charts, graphs, and illustrative forms in amplification of the textual material. And, the book does describe point-rating techniques for what at best they are: devices for diminishing individual bias in putting a price on jobs. There are, also, a useful index and a limited bibliography.—EDMOND RICKETTS, *Public Administration Service.*

Policy and Administration. Paul H. Appleby. University of Alabama Press, University, Alabama, 1949. 173 p. $2.50.

In this book, Paul Appleby returns for a more detailed examination of a subject which

he discussed in his earlier challenging book, *Big Government*. The concern of this new volume, originally presented as a series of lectures at the University of Alabama, is with the relations of public administrators to policy formation. His basic premise, which is by now a familiar one, is that politics and administration are not separate processes, and never have been. "Executives do not sit at two different desks, treating policy at one and administration at the other." They deal with "whole problems." Government action is a continuum in which there are higher and lower levels and differences in degree, but not sharp differences in kind between the formulation of policy and its execution. Appleby's definitions consequently are in terms of levels, and public administration becomes "that intermingling of policy-making and management which occurs below the levels of legislative, judicial, and popular-electoral policy determinations."

This general conception has been stated before, but few others have explored as realistically and incisively as Appleby the implications of this view for traditional conceptions of the administrative task. The result is that, in spite of the slight size of the book, the author succeeds remarkably well in his intention of sketching "something like a full-dimensional picture of public administration." For purposes of the present review, attention can perhaps be most profitably centered on his discussion of the relationship between partisan politics and the civil service.

It was under the earlier and now outmoded notion of separation of administration from any important policy-making functions, Appleby points out, that the "civil service system was justified, accepted, and probably to a small extent over-sold." Instead of any such sterile conception, Appleby holds that "it is a principal function of public administrators to reconcile and to mesh the functions of politicians and the functions of experts in the service of society." This dynamic responsibility requires that top-level administrators, whose task is primarily "political and organizational synthesis," have the generalist approach of the politician. "The top political administrator is not to be judged by professional-administrator standards." Did Appleby have Franklin Roosevelt in mind when he added that "many times when political leaders are popularly credited with being 'great leaders but poor administrators,' the appraisal reveals a failure to understand the nature of the administrative job at the level in question"? Like the politician, the top level administrator must be able to weigh forces, sentiments, and demands. Because this is his forte, he tends to be interchangeable in assignments with other top-level administrators.

But Appleby distinguishes between the political and the partisan. "The belief is being stressed in these papers that administrative personnel do make important contributions to policy but of a kind different from the partisan. Whatever policy change is in response to party change is effectuated in non-partisan action under the leadership of the relatively few partisan officials." He believes that the smaller and more local the jurisdiction, the greater tends to be the partisan character of executive government, with the least partisan character consequently found in the federal government.

Just below the level of the top-flight "political" but not necessarily "partisan" administrators, Appleby finds "strictly civil service administrators." But they are characterized by a "similar and only slightly less political quality." He believes there is relatively little partisan nature in the work of this administrative level. "Effective service of partisan officials is highly dependent on non-partisan officials in key administrative positions. Transference of business from the partisan atmosphere to the civil service atmosphere is full of difficulty of communication. This difficulty normally is minimized by the utilization of a few semi-partisan and a larger number of wholly civil service aides on the basis of a kind of congeniality that is in some part intellectual, in some part perhaps chemical. . . . The more fully 'political' civil servants can be at this level, short of partisanship, the more useful they can be." But Appleby admits that civil servants functioning in this non-partisan political capacity run considerable risks. "While some civil servants survive many leadership changes, there is on the whole more rapid turnover and change of assignment for top-level civil servants closely associated with partisan officials than for any other professional group in the government."

What is the role of the expert when administration is viewed as having such a high content of policy formulation? Appleby believes that the expert can have great weight in determining policies at the lower levels, where the political content is least, but that "the

more political are the aspects of a problem, the more this function takes on a character diminishingly dependent upon expert analysis. . . . So it is that normally the great body of scientists associated with action agencies experience greater frustration as they try to deal with successively higher hierarchal levels."

These are the kind of sharp insights which Appleby gives into the workings of government administration. Particularly interesting is his chapter on the effect which liberal and conservative shifts in political control have on administrative officials. One such effect which he does not mention is that such shifts make it possible for a book like this to be written by a top-level administrator who has been an active participant in the process of policy formation, but who with a change in the political character of the administration finds university administration a more congenial.

The basic moral of this stimulating book is found in the closing paragraphs, in which Appleby denies that the effect of his emphasis on the policy-making content in administration is to exalt administration. Rather, he says, this "emphasis on politics subordinates the administrator, exalts the politicians, and thereby exalts the citizen." Public administration is thus put in perspective, not as mere technique, not as science, not as expertise which can sneer at the ignorance and self-seeking of politicians, but as "one of a number of basic political processes by which this people achieves and controls governance."—C. Herman Pritchett, *The University of Chicago.*

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

Appley, Lawrence A. "Emergence of a New Management Era." *Personnel,* 25 (6) May, 1949: 428-37.—A new management era is resulting from the application of the same time, skill, effort, logic, understanding, knowledge and competency to human resources which management applied so successfully in the past to physical resources. This development of human resources involves acquisition of competent people, increasing individual productivity, and attracting and holding competent personnel. Competitive survival depends upon the capacity of management to increase the individual productivity of workers. The first step in accomplishing this is the development of position specifications, including for each job: (1) an outline of its objective, scope, responsibility, income range, and location; (2) a chart showing its relationships to other positions; and (3) a list of personal qualifications which an individual must possess to perform it satisfactorily. Position specifications must be supplemented by performance standards to set the desired goals. Next comes personnel appraisal, the evaluation of human resources. A focal process in increasing individual productivity is the establishment of a personnel inventory—a summarization of the individual appraisals of the workers. Training, wage and salary administration, incentive systems, employee relations, labor relations, grievance procedures, suggestion systems, and other activities round out the picture. We must do everything possible to secure the quantity and caliber of people we need to do a given job, and we must hold in our ranks those people who are performing as we would like to have them perform. Essential to this type of approach is a philosophy by top management that dealing with human resources is the most important job of the executive and supervisory personnel.—*William Brody.*

Simpson, J. R. "Improving Public Management." *Public Administration Review,* 9 (2) Spring, 1949.—In recognition of the affinity between personnel administration and organizational management, every department under the British Civil Service has an Organization & Methods Office which serves as a staff aid to management. The person in charge of this office holds a highly placed post. In the large departments, it is one of the four appointments in the hierarchy which needs the sanction of the Prime Minister. One function of the O and M office is the direction of in-service training throughout the whole service. The main purpose, however, is to assist in securing maximum efficiency in the operation of government executive machinery by the expert application of scientific methods to achieve economy in cost and labor. The Organization and Methods staff, both at the Treasury and Departmental branches, operates on an advisory basis. They have no authority to impose their ideas on the officer responsible for the running of a department, or division, or even a small office. The most important factor in the acceptance of the Organizations & Methods activity has been the interest shown by committees of the House of Commons and the readiness of the government to accept recommendations the committees have made. This management staff does not attempt to review the government machine in one huge investigation. The program is to take individual governmental activities which concern a number of departments, to examine them in turn, and to correct any faults or misallocations of functions which the examination reveals. The primary task of the Organization & Methods Office of reviewing and overhauling existing organization and methods will occupy several years; but its general service work, like that of other aspects of public management, is never-ending.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

Bernstein, Marver H. "Loyalty of Federal Employees in the United States." *Public Administration,* 27 Summer 1949.—Since 1939, the Federal government has devised a series of measures to control the "subversive" activities of its employees. Set in motion by a 1947 executive order, the present Employee Loyalty Program does not apply to agencies which have been granted power to dismiss summarily employees of doubtful loyalty, such as the Departments of the National Military Establishment, the State Department, and the Atomic Energy Commission. Under the Employee Loyalty Program, the standard for re-

fusal of employment or dismissal is that "on all the evidence, reasonable grounds exist for the belief that the person involved is disloyal to the government of the United States." This loyalty program endangers the liberties of public employees in four ways. First, the scope of the program is broader than necessary to protect national security. The program's comprehensive scope has obscured the fact that the great majority of employees are in positions where Communist affiliation or sympathy involves no danger to national security and has no bearing on the ability of an employee to carry out his duties satisfactorily. Second, the program sets no intelligible criteria for determining disloyalty. Although "sympathetic association" with an organization listed by the Attorney General as subversive has become the principal ground for dismissing employees as disloyal, the term has not been defined. Overtly disloyal acts, which are punishable in the courts, should be distinguished from possible future disloyalty, which is not so punishable. Instead of dismissal, a "potentially disloyal" employee should be transferred or given a chance to resign without prejudice. Third, when employees are dismissed, it is highly questionable whether the government should stigmatize them as disloyal. Unless the government has sufficient evidence to secure court conviction for a disloyal act, it should not label an employee as disloyal. The government's obvious right to hire and fire does not include the right to ruin an employee's reputation without good cause. And fourth, the procedure for hearing and determining cases of disloyalty is unfair. The present procedural provisions do not require full revelation of charges, the production of witnesses and documents, nor the right of cross-examination. The essential problem now is to design an effective loyalty program which is committeed to the proposition that the civil rights of government employees must be protected. There is no such commitment in the present program.—*Miriam M. Stubbs.*

Hawthorne, Joseph W. "Budget Preparation for the Personnel Agency." *Municipal Finance,* February, 1949: 23-28.—Intelligent and honest estimates of minimum personnel budget needs seem to require: (1) an estimate of work to be done in terms of examinations to be given, jobs to allocate, etc.; (2) a thorough analysis of the work elements; and (3) a record over a number of years of costs in dollars or man hours. The technical work of the Examining Division of the Los Angeles City Civil Service Department will serve as an example of the system. A code was devised covering each work function and division. Though subject to change, at present there are about 160 work codes. Each employee records his time by codes and hours every day, and the data are key-punched for tabulation and computation of dollar costs for each operation. Several different monthly reports are based on this cost information, including a cost-of-functions report, division reports, individual employee reports, examinations costs, and comparative costs and payroll reports. Supervisors are better able to determine whether or not the time of subordinates is being properly distributed and whether work assignments are progressing properly. As an example, an analysis of the cost of examination protests furnishes some indication of the quality of written tests. Division cost data allow some types of interdivision comparisons and budget control. Admittedly, the usefulness of some data is rather gross, especially in any given month, but current analysis reveals possible operating weaknesses, and greater value will come from long-term average cost analyses. Before maximum use of the system as a budget tool is possible, such averages must be developed over a considerable period of time, and excess water must be wrung out of the procedures. Certain standards of performance may be expected to control the quality of the product, and when experience has demonstrated optimum costs, accurate budgets can be prepared. (Article contains code list for the examination division and figures illustrating significant reports.)—*John C. Crowley.*

Pigors, Paul "Making Two-Way Communication Effective." *Advanced Management,* 14 (2) June, 1949: 68-72.—Management's two-way system of communication—order giving from the top down and report making from the bottom up—never does work out in practice as it should in theory, primarily because effective communication requires more than a technical statement of objective facts. Communication, to be effective, must reach the mind of an individual; it must make sense and be acceptable in terms of *his* background and experience. It is a joint process, involving a response in words or feeling. This response must be evaluated in order to raise the level of future communication. Behavior is more

important than talk and writing in building the relationship that serves as the basis for all verbal communication. Feeling also is an all-important element in communication and may color or distort objective facts. Finally, communication is a continuing process. In the constant process of interpretation down the line, what is not said or not done may be more important than official words or action. Communication is going on all the time both throughout the whole organization and within each individual and group relationship. The theory of a two-way system of orders and reports is designed to enable line management, from the top down, to direct and check activity throughout the entire organization. The system of orders from above and reports from below has two kinds of shortcomings: (1) organizational limitations, such as restrictions imposed on line and staff officials by their assigned area of responsibility, competition for appropriations within over-all budget limits, and difficulty of obtaining cooperation to meet responsibilities; (2) limitations inherent in the theory of a technical order and report system, such as the assumption that effective control consists primarily in providing external incentives or that it can be brought about by external constraints. Furthermore, conceived as a single two-way process going all the way from the top to the bottom and back again, communication is unnecessarily slow. Technical communication can be improved by treating order giving and reporting as *separate, though independent,* processes. In the best practice, external incentives and controls are used merely to stimulate what has already been begun by self-motivation and carried further by self-control. This improvement can best be accomplished if top management consents to experiment with management-labor cooperation and takes full advantage of actual opportunities for participation.—*Bettie J. Levy.*

Supervisory Technique

LAWSHE, C. H. "How Can We Pick Better Supervisors?" *Personnel Psychology,* 2 (1) Spring, 1949.—More emphasis should be given to the matter of supervisory selection. Management has received far too little help from professional psychology in determining who shall be trained. Two studies by the Occupational Research Center at Purdue University have demonstrated that general mental ability as measured by the Adaptability Test is one of the common denominators of supervisory success. The Adaptability Test is a short test of mental alertness designed for use in business and industry. The first study was conducted during the war in a manufacturing plant where military contracts had increased the number of supervisory employees needed. Relying solely upon the suggestions and judgments of the present supervisors and personnel records, seventy men were selected for training. At the first training session the Adaptability Test was administered to these supervisory trainees. The test papers were filed, and six months later the results were examined. At this time, seventeen of the seventy were not supervising. Of the sixty-two men who obtained a score of six or better, eighteen per cent had been separated; of the twenty-three men receiving scores of twelve points or better, only six per cent were separated; and, of the thirteen men making scores of eighteen or better, none had left the supervisory ranks. In the second study, representatives of forty-four different industries each selected two of their "very best first-line supervisors" and two of their "poorest first-line supervisors" to be given this test. The scores obtained demonstrated that in so far as these forty-four industries are concerned, the higher a man scores on the Adaptability Test, the greater the probability that he will be considered as being one of their "best" supervisors. Of the 130 men who obtained a score of twelve or better, on the test, sixty-three per cent were considered "best." As successively higher minimum test score brackets were established, correspondingly higher percentages of "best" supervisors appeared.—*Ruth Hanson.*

REID, THOMAS R. "How Do People Become Executives?" *Personnel Administration,* 11 (5) May, 1949—Leadership is not forced upon those who follow—people in general need to be led and want to be led. The prime requirement of executive ability is the quality of accepted leadership.

Scientific management has been slow in applying to the middle and top executive the sort of study it has made of rank-and-file labor and of shop and office supervision. The most pressing need of management today is study of principles of executive selection, means of determining executive abilities at an early stage, and methods of training and developing the capacities required for executive service.

The executive function includes the making of judgments, the initiation of actions, and the

getting of results, all of which must be accomplished through dealings with people.

The requirements of an executive, which could be named in endless detail, may be summarized as: (1) judgment (the ability to think, to use intelligence); (2) drive (determination, persistence, initiative, enthusiasm, ability to sell judgments and ideas to superiors and subordinates); and (3) vision (the ability to perceive the broad pattern, to look ahead, and—more than that—to look around so that all concepts of a given question are within view.—*Kathryn A. Humm.*

Testing

CHESLER, DAVID J. "Abbreviated Job Evaluation Scales Developed on the Basis of 'Internal' and 'External' Criteria." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 33 (2) April, 1949:— In recent years much of the published material in the field of job evaluation which might properly be designated as "research" has been concerned with *abbreviated* job evaluation scales. The studies used the Wherry-Doolittle selection method to derive the abbreviated scales, applying it to the factors in the scale and identifying the first three or four factors which contribute most to ratings the jobs receive on the scale. The ratings predicted from these three or four factors are then compared with the ratings received on all of the original factors. The criterion is the original job evaluation scale from which the abbreviated scale was derived.

In this study, job raters in three industrial organizations rated independently descriptions and specifications for 35 "standard" salaried jobs of a standard job evaluation manual and of their own respective company manuals. The study attempted to answer the question as to which of three or four factors in a job evaluation scale would be identified if another job evaluation scale were used as the criterion. It is believed that a study of this sort offers a method of analyzing the differences between two job evaluation manuals. Specifically, it answers the question of what factors in one job evaluation system constitute the best measure of another system. (Tables.)—*Richard W. Darling.*

KRIEDT, P. H. and CLARK, K. E. "Item Analysis vs. Scale Analysis." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 33 (2) April, 1949.—A comparison was made of the Cornell (Dr. Louis Guttman) Technique of Scale Analysis with two older methods of item analysis, in order to determine the comparative values of each method for selecting from a pool of items those which belong together. With the Guttman method, considerable discretion is needed both in the selection of suitable problems and in the way the procedures are handled. The techniques cannot be used easily by research workers who have not had considerable experience with them. The worker is required to judge, first of all, whether or not items logically can be considered to belong together. Much judgment must be exercised in balancing the several criteria of unidimensionality which have been developed: (1) reproducibility, (2) items selected at various intervals along the range of modal response frequencies, and (3) more error than nonerror in each category. The latter is the most serious weakness among the several safeguards which occasionally permit worthless items to remain. It might be judged that this approach is less satisfactory for the problems of scale refinement than the traditional methods. However, in spite of mechanical difficulties, this Scale Analysis Technique can prove useful in problems of psychological measurement. One of the other methods was a common form in which the item responses made by persons in the top twenty-seven per cent of the distribution on total score are compared with the responses made by persons in the bottom twenty-seven per cent on total score, using the phi coefficient as a measure of the correlation between item and total score. The other method was the determination of inter-correlations between items, as a means of selecting those which are measuring the same thing, using as the measure of relationship the tetrachoric correlation coefficient. The data and procedures used and the results obtained are described in some detail.—*Aura-Lee Ageton.*

Public and Employee Relations

KEENAN, W. N. "The Role of Employee Organizations in the Public Service of Canada." *The Canadian Civil Servant,* 28 (5) March, 1949. The motives and objectives that prompted the early organization of employees in the public service of Canada have changed in the last forty years. Benevolent and social purposes have given some place now to improved efficiency and the best possible employer-employee relationships. The culmination of improving cooperation has been the establishment of the National Joint Council

by Order in Council in May, 1944. The Amalgamated Civil Servants of Canada with a membership of 7000; the Civil Service Association of Ottawa with 15,000 members; the Civil Service Federation, which is the parent organization of 52,000 affiliate members; the Dominion Civil Service War Veterans Association, and the Professional Institute of the Civil Service with 2,200 members; all of these are represented on the staff side of the National Joint Council. The Council may consider and recommend action on various matters including: conditions of employment, training, improved office procedures, proposed legislation affecting civil servants, departmental joint councils, tenure, discipline, overtime remuneration, seniority, promotion, etc. Recommendations must be passed for action to the Civil Service Commission, the Treasury Board, or the department concerned. Several committees of the Council have been appointed and these are making useful studies. The organizations may act independently if they see fit and frequently they do present submissions to the proper government agency or to a committee of Cabinet. The advantages of organizations as listed are: to voice opinions, to discuss problems, to obtain a cross section of opinion, to clarify misunderstandings, to develop interest in common problems, to make more impressive requests through a common representative, to improve efficiency, to provide contacts with the official side, and to advise administration. Government in Canada has not only acknowledged, but encouraged and facilitated staff organization.—*O. E. Ault.*

HAYWORTH, THADENE and NOLAN, JANET. "Mental Health for Employees." *Personnel Journal,* 28 (2) June, 1949.—Personnel administrators now recognize that employees in poor mental health are expensive to maintain due to their lowered efficiency, their frequent absences, and their depressing effect upon the morale and production of their fellow workers. Individual counseling programs and the placing of increased emphasis on "human relations" in supervisory contacts are now only scratching the surface of the problem. The method proposed here for reducing emotional maladjustment in workers is essentially a preventive approach, designed to operate within the limits of company funds and available professionally trained workers. Its technique is that of group discussion of subjects related to common worker problems, such as those relating to occupational adjustments, family relationships, family finances, job-family conflicts, health problems, and planning for the future. Through well led group discussion, the worker gets accurate facts relating to his problems, learns that he is not alone in his troubles, has an opportunity to think and talk frankly about things that trouble him, hears the points of view of others, and has the ground laid for the lessening of feelings of guilt and failure and the development of more constructive attitudes. A program of this type is best organized as an employee service program, with meetings held on employee time. In a typical plant, the company would provide a coordinator, space, and other facilities; other costs would be met by those attending and/or the employee association. Discussion leaders would be selected for their skill in handling group discussions and in recognizing cases that should be referred for individual treatment or counseling, as well as for their high professional qualifications. Discussions would be stimulated by motion pictures and supplemented by books on related subjects. A program of this type should go far toward meeting employee needs and is capable of providing many direct and indirect benefits to the company and community.—*Stanley S. Berg.*

O'MALLEY, RAPHAEL H. "Payroll Savings and Employee Morale." *Personnel,* 25 (6) May, 1949.—In the postwar era, payroll savings for the purchase of U.S. Savings Bonds have risen tremendously. Management has promoted the idea of payroll savings in many cases because it benefits the company in improved employee morale; lower turnover rates; reduced absenteeism; and fewer accidents. Feelings of insecurity in the worker result in poor morale and therefore poor production. Since the employee is ordinarily most concerned about his economic future, and regular savings are a means of providing him with a reserve against financial emergencies, increased morale has resulted in several companies using the Payroll Savings Plan. Among companies who have surveyed the effect of payroll savings on their operations, Butler Brothers and Munsingwear found significantly lower absentee rates for payroll savers. Munsingwear also found a lower quit rate for payroll savers. Eleven U.S. Navy Yards report a decrease in accident rates as payroll savings increase. General Electric Company has recently agreed to give a bonus in common stock equal to 15 per cent of the

value of savings bonds held for five years by its employees. As a result of the Pennsylvania Railroad's vigorous campaign to promote payroll savings, but without undue pressure on employees, 87 per cent of its workers subscribed to the plan. It is suggested by the president of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York that payroll savings are a partner in the American way of life. Far from costing management an excessive amount to collect, payroll savings result in increased production and more income. The personnel manager can help perpetuate the plan by making payroll savings part of the indoctrination of new workers.—*Patricia C. Livingston.*

Training

Johnson, Theodore, Myers, Joseph, Olsen, Allen S. "In-Service Training for City Employees." *Public Management*, 31 (5), May, 1949.—Three cities recently have conducted in-service group training programs for their employees. Several of the programs used text materials and instructors provided by the Institute for Training in Municipal Administration of the International City Managers' Association. In Dayton, Ohio, training was given to 34 administrative officials. For each two-hour session, half of which was on city time and half on employee time, the participants were required to prepare answers to a set of questions previously distributed. At each meeting these answers provided the basis for the discussion under a discussion leader. At an estimated cost of $600 the training course has proved an excellent management technique for communicating the principles and methods of government operation to the administrative staff. To improve leadership in its police force, Portland, Maine, undertook a training program that reached 21 officers in key positions. The 13-week course was conducted by the conference method using the I.C.M.A. text. As far as the development of leaders is concerned, the results of this training were most encouraging. It is too early to tell to what extent the course may improve police service in Portland, but several recommendations for improvements in operations have been made by officers who participated. In Pontiac, Michigan, a number of organized training programs were carried out in 1948. Apprenticeship programs giving related classroom instruction as well as on-the-job training were begun or continued for several trades. A cooperative program was worked out for the employment and training of third- and fourth-year high school students as clerical workers. In the public works department, foremanship training was the chief concern. Fire department officers enrolled in the I.C.M.A. Municipal Fire Administration course. Those who successfully completed this course were presented with a certificate by the mayor. Other planned training programs included a course for nursing aides; a class in medical terminology for certain hospital employees; and institutes for playground directors and for athletic officials of events sponsored by the recreation department.—*Herbert Shell.*

Classification and Pay

Locke, Norman, "Few Factors or Many?" *Personnel*, 25 (6) May, 1949.—Public agency interest in position classification by the point system is growing, and the question of the number of job factors to use is of basic importance. An analysis was made of a 10-factor point system of classification to determine if any factors could be eliminated without harm to the end results. The system studied was in use for the past three years by a large state agency administering a public assistance program. In the analysis, a study group of 108 clerical and stenographic workers was selected, representing eleven classes of positions and five levels in one occupational series. Reliability of the system was determined by the split-half method and resulted in a coefficient of 0.98. One of the ten factors, "supervisory responsibilities," could not be studied fully due to incompleteness of scores. The first approach to intercorrelation was to compare the factors when grouped by class of position, rather than by employee. The results of this showed that all job factors, with the exception of that on supervision, were highly intercorrelated. The second set of intercorrelations followed the product-moment method and represented the relations among the nine job factors and total score. The correlation coefficients in this set were high, with the inference following that, to a large extent, all factors were measuring the same thing. In order to find any tendency for one or another job factor to be more highly correlated with all the others, all coefficients between the first factor and the remaining eight were averaged. Four averages were grouped slightly lower than the others, all at 0.85, and these were the ones

which were most interesting because the lower the correlation, the greater the independence of job factor. The four factors found least related were: procedure or processes followed; interpretation of policies and procedures; review of actions and decisions of others; and importance of final work results. The five factors recommended for elimination as the result of this analysis were: status of work; variety and scope; independence of action; qualification standards; and training period. A check was made on the accuracy of the conclusions reached by correlating the new scores with the original scores. This resulted in a coefficient of 0.96, which indicates a high relationship. (Article contains tables showing details of intercorrelations studied.)—*Robert C. Garnier.*

WOODS, E. CHARLES. "Classification Is Not a 'Service' Only." *Personnel Administration,* 11 (5) May, 1949.—One of the prevalent shibboleths of personnel administration has been "Personnel Administration is a *service* to operating officials." This is true only in part. Almost every component of personnel administration has some aspects which represent controls, and others which provide true services. In the field of position classification, we find both services and controls. A position-classification plan is a service to the top authority of the jurisdiction. Clearly, if employees are receiving compensation which is equitable as between individuals, units, and departments, it is of great service. On the other hand, the plan says to subordinate chiefs in that same organization: "You may not pay more for the same work than any other supervisor or department head." This is a control, but it is also a service to an administrative official if his fellow officials are likewise controlled. Many of the soothsayers distinguish between functions of classifier personnel in the central personnel agency and classifier personnel in the departments and agencies. The most extreme form of the distinction arrives at the philosophy that it is the purpose of the departments and agencies to "beat" the classification plan to the maximum possible extent. Classification is not a "service" in this sense. If we recognize the control aspects, it will be easier to understand and to secure the benefits of position classification.—*Jesse C. Anderson.*

Recruiting and Interviewing

FREDENBURGH, FRANZ A. "Selection Methods for Part-Time Workers." *Personnel Journal,* 27 (11) April, 1949. In a tight labor market, high school students may be used to good advantage for part-time work. Selection of the best available students presents a problem because of their lack of work experience. The Great American Insurance Company devised a three-part selection procedure for part-time employees consisting of: (1) school references, (2) a screening interview, and (3) a panel interview. The school reference form, completed by each applicant's teacher or principal, provides a rating on six characteristics: scholarship, attendance, extracurricular record, industry and initiative, cooperation, and honesty. The rater checks one of four descriptive phrases under each characteristic. Certain phrases, such as "causes friction—a troublemaker," carry high negative values in scoring in order to eliminate obvious misfits. The individual screening interviews are given daily by a staff of four interviewers. Considering the school reference report and performance on the interview, the interviewers screen applicants they consider to be nonemployable and invite the best applicants to appear before the personnel panel which meets weekly. The panel is composed of the personnel director and the four screening interviewers. Applicants come before the panel in groups of five. The personnel director questions each applicant in turn concerning his school interests and the kind of part-time job he is seeking. While the applicants wait outside, the panel members rate them on appearance, dress, speech, and general impression. Interview scores are combined with school reference scores, a critical score is established, and the successful applicants are ranked. Applicants are notified of the final results in individual interviews.—*Lloyd W. Woodburn.*

END OF VOLUME 10

The October (No. 4) issue of *Public Personnel Review* concludes Volume 10 of the publication, covering the calendar year 1949. A subject-matter index to this volume appears in the following pages, and a title page is also included for the convenience of subscribers who wish to bind the volume as a unit.

Public Personnel Review Index VOLUME 10, 1949

THE ENTRIES in this index are arranged alphabetically by author under the following nine subject headings:

Personnel Administration—General Aspects
Personnel Agency Management
Classification; Pay
Recruitment; Selection; Induction
Placement; Service Standards and Evaluation
Training
Work Terms; Conditions of Employment
Employee Relations
Separation

The nature of each entry is identified by the following symbols: (A) Original articles; (Ab) Abstract of an article; and (B) Book review. Each entry shows, in the following order, the author, title, nature of the item, volume and issue number, month, and page numbers. The page numbers of the four issues in the 1949 volume are as follows:

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Personnel Administration—General Aspects

Personnel Management

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Placement; Service Standards and Evaluation

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Work Terms; Conditions of Employment

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Separation

. . . The CSA

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada, founded in 1906, is a non-profit association of public personnel agencies, together with persons engaged in public personnel work or interested in its improvement. Member agencies of the CSA are civil service commissions and boards and other similar governmental personnel offices. The CSA serves more than 250 public jurisdictions in the United States and in Canada. In addition, the organization also includes more than 750 individual and affiliate members.

Briefly stated, the purposes of the CSA are these:

- **To foster and develop interest in sound personnel administration in the public service, based on the principles of the merit system, and to encourage its wider application;**
- **To promote the study, development, and use of scientific methods of administration and research in the public personnel field;**
- **To serve as a clearing house for the collection and distribution of information concerning public personnel methods and procedures, and to provide a medium for the international exchange of information regarding the administration of personnel programs in government.**
- **To render a program of services to public personnel agencies, assisting them in meeting their administrative and technical problems with sound policies and methods.**

To further these objectives CSA offers a varied program of activities, services, and publications to public personnel agencies, their staff members, and the general public. Full information about CSA membership will be sent on request.